DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 120 117 SP 009 888

TITLE National College Physical Education Association for Men. Proceeding of Annual Meeting (72nd, Durham, North Carolina, January 8-11, 1969).

INSTITUTION National Coll. Physical Education Association for Men.

PUB DATE Jan 69

NOTE 273p.; Not available in hard copy due to print size of original document

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.

DESCRIPTORS *Athletics; *Clubs; Foreign Relations; *Higher Education; History; Intercollegiate Programs; Intramural Athletic Programs; *Physical Education; *Research; Teacher Education

ABSTRACT

In addition to the special addresses presented, the proceedings contain speeches on the following topics: (1) basic instruction, (2) intramural athletics, (3) research, (4) foreign relations, (5) intercollegiate athletics, (6) the history of sport, and (7) teacher education. Some of the papers presented in the research section include sport and personality dynamics, and self-concept, aspiration level, and performance of competitive collegiate golfers. In the area of intramural athletics the pros and cons of sports clubs were discussed. These proceedings also include the president's report, financial reports, minutes from the last meeting, and reports from the standing committees, the president's committees, and the joint committee. Lists of NCPEAM members, committee members, and officers are presented as well as the NCPEAM constitution and by-laws, and NCPEAM policies. (PCB)

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ED120117

Proceedings
Annual Meeting

January 8-11, 1969
Durham, North Carolina

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
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NEXT MEETING

December 27-30, 1969

Chicago, Illinois

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FOR MEN
C.E. Mueller, Secretary-Treasurer
203 Cooke Hall, University of Minnesota
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Contents

NCPEAM Officers 1969 1
NCPEAM Committee Members 1969 2

Special Addresses

Enigma
(Presidential Address) . . . . CHARLES KOVACIC 5
Means-End Relationships
(General Session Address) . . . . IRVING ALEXANDER 8
The Pragmatism of Clark Hetherington
(General Session Address) . . . . RICHARD B. MORLAND 14

Basic Instruction

Serving Student Purposes . . . . MARTIN H. ROGERS 21
Surfeiters of Venerable Traditions . . . . JAMES L. BREEN 25
A Challenge Answered . . . . LEO L. GEDVILAS 26
The Use of Limited and Off-Campus Facilities
for College Physical Education Programs . . . . . CHARLES J. KRISTUFEK 32
Do Films Help Students Learn Motor Skills? . . . . . WAYNE B. BRUMBACH 36

Intramural Athletics

Pros and Cons of Sports Clubs . . . . DICK JAMERSON 41
Pros and Cons of Sports Clubs . . . . GEORGE W. HANIFORD 49
Pros and Cons of Sports Clubs . . . . TAYLOR DODSON 54

Research

Sport and Personality Dynamics . . . . BURRIS F. HUSMAN 56
Reaction to "Sport and Personality Dynamics" . . . . E. DEAN RYAN 70
Reaction to "Sport and Personality Dynamics" . . . . . . ROBERT E. MCADAM 75
Reaction to "Sport and Personality Dynamics" . . . . R. N. SINGER 76
The Pratt Family-Laymen Extraordinary
in the History of Physical Education . . . . J. EDMUND WELCH 80
Charles Harold McCloy: His Professional Preparation
and Early Work Experiences . . . . JAMES R. LITTLE 91
Self-Concept, Aspiration Level, and Performance of CLIFFORD A. BOYD
Competitive Collegiate Golfers . . . . RICHARD B. GARVER 100
The Development and Discriminant Analysis of ANDREW S. JACKSON
Swimming Profiles of College Men . . . . JOHN D. PETTINGER 104
Resuscitation and Cross-Infection Control . . . . . . RICHARD H. POHNDORF 110

Foreign Relations

Comparative, International, and Development
Studies in Physical Education . . . . JOHN E. NIXON 114

Intercollegiate Athletics

Establishing and Developing College Soccer . . . . PAUL S. FARDY 124

History of Sport

First International Seminar on the History of
Physical Education and Sport . . . . EARLE F. ZEIGLER 132
1879: The Beginning of an Era in American Sport . . . . GUY M. LEWIS 136
An Historical Study of the Aims, Contents, and Methods of
Swedish, Danish, and German Gymnastics Systems . DAVID O. MATTHEWS 145
Description of the New Sports Library Collection
at San Jose State College . . . . WILLIAM F. GUSTAFSON 155

Teacher Education

Researchers and Teachers at the OK Corral . . . . LAWRENCE F. LOCKE 160
Reaction to "Researchers and Teachers at the OK Corral" . . . . JESSE L. PARKS 169
Reaction to "Researchers and Teachers at the OK Corral" . . . . ARNE L. OLSON 171
Some Aspects of Research and Practice . . . . RICHARD I. MILLER 172
Response to "Some Aspects of Research and Practice" . . . . J. KENNETH CUMMISKEY 178
Response to "Some Aspects of Research and Practice" . . . . WILLIAM G. ANDERSON 181

Reports

President's Report 183
Statement of Receipts and Disbursements 184
Convention Manager's Report 185
Quest Advisory Board Report 187

Minutes, Executive Council

March 30, 1968 189
January 8, 1969 190
January 9, 1969 192
January 11, 1969 193

Minutes, Association Business

January 9, 1969 193
January 10, 1969 194

Standing Committees

Constitution 195
Finance 196
Foreign Relations 197
Historical Records 197
Legislative 198
Membership 199
Necrology 201
Operating Codes 209
Policies 210
Public Relations 211
Resolutions 211

President's Committees

Time and Site 212
Utilization of Television in Physical Education 213
Supervisors and Teachers of Elementary School Physical Education Conference Report 214

Joint Committee

Physical Education and Athletics, NCPEAM, NCAA, and AAHPER 217

Rules and Regulations

Constitution and By-Laws 219
Policies 224

Membership Lists

Honorary Members 229
Active Members 234

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Convention Notes for the 73rd Annual Convention

Convention City	Chicago, Illinois
Convention Hotel	Sheraton-Chicago
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PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

Enigma

Charles Kovacic
University of California – Davis

Perhaps you all wonder just what the title of this talk means and what profound words or pearls of wisdom it will be your good fortune to hear. Frankly, any gains you make along these lines will depend upon yourselves, because "Enigma" can be defined as "a series of intentionally obscure statements that depend for full comprehension on the alertness and ingenuity of the hearer or reader."

Every day in this exciting age of expanding communications and space travel, scientists and scholars are working to push back the frontiers of knowledge. In the next 60 seconds their labors will have increased the worldwide store of information by 3,000 pages. This wealth of information has enormous value, but only when it is available for reference. Happily, modern electronic computer systems provide a way to manage and utilize this "knowledge explosion." For example, in less than an hour one remarkable machine can read and memorize a novel the size of "Dr. Zhivago." Then, at the push of a button, it can recall and print within seconds any of the stored information it is asked to produce about any of the novel's hundreds of characters and situations. Think what this can mean, applied to technical manuscripts, in terms of freeing our minds from the drudgery of searching for information, for the more rewarding pursuits of exploring broad paths of knowledge. Computers, also, have enabled man not only to circle the moon and return to earth but also have provided valuable physiological data on man as he travels through space. Further, man uses the revolutionary technique of remote sensing which provides scientists with all kinds of valuable new information to feed their computers. It is a source of quite legitimate excitement today for it offers a veritable cornucopia of benefits for the future of the human race. It will help improve the food you eat, the water you drink, the air you breathe! It promises aid in averting famine, flood, and fire. It may find new natural resources as well as long-lost cities and buried treasure. Ultimately, it may help determine whether man will be able to continue to live on his planet, the earth. Thus, computers and remote sensors are wondrous things. Unfortunately, although a computer can read and store a masterpiece, it will never write one, and although remote sensing will monitor man's resources and environment, it cannot "feel" for him. Creative mental-physical achievement will always require the artistry and the devotion of individual men and women.

The future lies before us – bigger, brighter, better automated – and we had all better run away while there's still time. Providing there's room to run. Between now and the year 2000, the world's population is expected to double. Average human life expectancy will be about 100. The work week will go down to four and then three days in every seven. There will be more people performing services – and the service will be less and less satisfactory. There will be more farms and fewer farmers, more food and fewer good meals. It will be a time of transplants – not only of organs but of arms and legs – not only of human transplants but of man-made versions. By the end of the century, the octogenarian in the street may contain more man-made than God-crafted components. It will be the age of the take-over gadget, and there is as yet no evidence for supposing the gadgets of the future will manage things any better than the present day ones. One thing, however, is certain – machines will be doing it all. It is probably safe to predict that those who inhabit the United States in the year 2000 will not be happy with us.

The very "progress" we bequeath them, the scientific and social changes that will bring them the 15- to 20-hour work week, also will give them the leisure to learn to hate their ugly heritage: the vanished countryside, the polluted waters and air, the ugly old and new cities. As electronics pioneer G. Harry Fleishmann said, "They will resent the machines that freed them. They will begrudge the time spent in nursing the machines and even more in learning how to nurse them. And most of all, they will envy and miss the sense of accomplishment."

Our sociology will please them no more than our technology. Privacy as we have known it will no longer exist, because there scarcely will be an area left in an individual's life which has not been recorded – and stored – in some computer's memory bank. There will still be hungry people, traffic jams and wars. The family structure will be radically altered. Margaret Mead foresees the change as being "... small families and a high toleration of childless marriages or a more encompassing social style in which parenthood would be limited to a smaller number of families whose principal function would be child rearing; the rest of the population would be free to function as individuals." She goes on to foresee that "companionship for work, play and stable living would come to be based on many different combinations, within and across sex lines, among different-sized clusters of individuals." All of this, of course, will be predicated upon the perfection not only of the pill but of the long-heralded "morning-after pill."

Thus, computers and automation have captured man's imagination. That is to say, like the psychiatrist's ink blot, they serve the imagination as symbols for all that is mysterious, potential, or portentious. Duplicating the problem-solving and information handling capabilities of the brain is not far off. We are much further from replacing the eyes, hands, and the legs. Further, I would hazard a guess that automation of a flexible central nervous system will be feasible long before automation of a comparable, flexible sensory, manipulative, or locomotive system. If these conjectures are correct, we may expect (other things being equal) automation of thinking and symbol-manipulating functions to proceed more rapidly than the automation of the more complex eye-hand-brain sequences. Eventually, man will be completely automated. As this change takes place, however, we simply do not know how long it will take mankind to adjust, if ever, to a world in which human labor is unessential to the production of goods and services. By the same token, we will have a complete change in the processes by which people acquire knowledge – the "computer tutor" will be a reality and future generations will not recall classwork without them. In fact, a recent cartoon depicted a scene where a small boy begged a bedtime story. The punchline was, "Dad, tell me again what school was like before computers."

Knowing that these changes will occur, what contributions can we in physical education make to the educational processes young people will be undergoing in the year 2000? Or will we wind up as being one of those who are automated out of business? Undoubtedly, many changes will occur in the teacher education curriculum for major students in our area, if it is in existence. Basically, the psychological, sociological and physiological considerations of physical education will probably not change, but there will be a greater wealth of scientifically demonstrated facts available to the profession. There will be a need, however, to overcome the "physical education gap" that exists today in our institutions of higher learning where physical education majors are prepared. Today we are not in common agreement on what is taught as physical education at these various institutions. The curriculums vary widely as to content to an extent that makes it difficult for a student to transfer acceptable course credits from one institution to another with ease. Further, graduate courses are offered in many institutions that are merely undergraduate courses with a graduate level number. Departments will be, and are being, fractured, i.e., health education is moved over into public health, dance into fine arts, research into physiology, physical activities and athletic coaching into a separate area, recreation off by itself, and a desire on the part of many in our profession to disassociate from athletics entirely because they regard it as an unwelcome intruder upon the grove of the academe.

Regardless of what happens to the administrative and curricular structure of the department, we had better determine curricula-wise what we should teach. Should we teach the knowledge amassed before 1950, or should we teach the knowledge amassed since that time. Are courses like the organization and administration of physical education, organizational relationships in school health education, curriculum in physical education, philosophies of physical education, to name a few, those that we should and will be teaching? Why is it that when such courses have been taught at both the undergraduate and graduate levels, so many of our people send out questionnaires requesting information on how and what to do in organization and administration? How come so many of our people need help in defining physical education when their activity or major programs are threatened by professional colleagues in other disciplines? Have we really done a job of teaching or have we been spinning our wheels?

In closing, I believe most of us would agree that education is the most important secular enterprise in our society. To us, physical education is. Unfortunately, education and physical education are still the least researched. We know that those industries, those activities in our society that have made great progress through the generations have done so largely through research. Though it was long overdue, we have finally arrived at the point where research efforts have begun in our field. It is my hope that our efforts will increase manyfold and produce those results we will need to be a part of the total educational and social scene come the year 2000. Let us not become bored, tired, rigid or unwilling to find ways of self-renewal. Anyone who understands our situation at all, understands we are in little danger of failing through lack of material strength. If we fail, it will be a failure of heart and spirit — the very things we feel we know most about.

GENERAL SESSION ADDRESSES

Means — End Relationships

Irving Alexander
Duke University

I must begin by setting the stage for what it is I have to share with you to avoid the possibility of misconception. When John Frederick approached me some time ago to appear on your program I had more than a fair share of misgivings. I know so little about the problems of physical education and I've never been more than an enthusiastic but mediocre athlete. All this added up to a polite but firm refusal. Yet, in a weak moment, I considered a problem which has been puzzling me for some time, the nature of means-end relationships, and wondered about its relevance for your sphere of interest. Rashly, I thought there might be some connections and thus accepted the invitation. Now I'm not so sure after having played with the ideas for a while. What I shall do then is to trace the line of development with you in the hope that this set of ideas will have some meaning for you in what you do.

First, let me clarify a bit of psychological jargon. The title of my talk may be cryptic. What is it that I'm really concerned with in means-end relationships? Here I must return to my own discipline, psychology, and particularly the psychology of motivation, and discuss with you the prevailing model for why man does what he does. For ease in explanation, I shall choose two examples of the model, each of which has its adherents among personality theorists. Both examples have one feature in common, namely that man strives to achieve an end state, a goal, and that the means by which he perseveres toward the achievement of that end or goal are subordinate, or less important to his psychological well-being than the attainment of the goal itself.

The clearest example of this view is found in the theory of Sigmund Freud, particularly in his explication of the pleasure-pain principles. Stated simply, Freud believed that human existence is geared to achieve pleasure and to avoid pain. Yet, interestingly enough, pleasure was defined by him in a very particular way as the reduction of stimulation. It was as though the ideal image was an organism at rest, intruded upon by either inner or outer stimulation, the condition of pain, and his goal was to reduce the stimulation which would then result in a reduction of tension, or the state of pleasure. One might conceive of the process biologically, as became the fashion among psychologists. The tissues and organs require a certain amount of external organic matter input (food) in order to function efficiently. When such is not forthcoming, a state of deprivation or need or tension is set up which acts as a signal to the organism to arousal or activity to reduce that tension. Subsequent activity is directed to take from the outside world something to reduce the need. In the beginning the activity is undirected, as in the crying of an infant, which may be a universal sign for any kind of need and later modified by learning to channel that activity directly to the appropriate source for reduction, like the contents of the refrigerator. In any case, the need is what propels the individual and the means are a by-product which have no value in and of themselves, except as satisfiers or reducers of the need.

The other dominant position in this tradition is exemplified by the self-actualization or self-realization theorists. This view is somewhat more amorphous, but in terms of means-end relationship is similar to the one just discussed. It posits an end state or goal, self-fulfillment, toward which man is propelled and again the means are relatively unimportant. The advantage of this position over the former one is that it sees man as an extended creature in time, an ongoing total process and, thus, can turn its attention to long-term activities which seem to be more indicative of man's existence than the exigencies of immediate daily, biological life.

A further virtue of this position and one to which we shall have occasion to refer again is that the goal is a never-ending one, really never achieved in actuality, and thus maintains the ever-present possibility of sustaining means endlessly. Anything interpreted as activity directed toward self-fulfillment can be continued indefinitely, since the end-state as a criterion is never achieved. A difficulty that ensues in this position is that even such an amorphous goal gets organized into sub-units with real time dimensions, beginnings and closings, which then provide the basis for existential human problems.

Having laid the scaffold, I must now return to what originally stimulated my interest in this whole question. As is frequently the case, it resulted from observations on myself and others as we experienced meaningful aspects of our everyday life.

How does a person feel after completion of a long-term activity which culminates in the achievement of a desired end or goal? According to the predictions I would derive from the positions just described, he should feel quiescent (neutral affect) or peaceful (mild positive affect). Common sense would predict that he should feel joy or elation (strong positive affect). Yet the observations are not in keeping with these predictions. The typical case seems to be either immediate joy (high positive affect) followed by prolonged depression (strong negative affect) or nothing but depression (again strong negative affect). This is likely to be the case, no matter what the outcome of the activity is in terms of outside evaluation or recognition or inner evaluation, for that matter. The degree of negative affect experienced may involve how the product is evaluated, but I would contend that it is negative affect under either condition of evaluation.

If the product is evaluated positively, the following syndromes are typical: the "nowhere left to go phenomenon."

In this connection I can recall visiting a friend and distinguished colleague some years ago at the Center for Advanced Study in Palo Alto just after he had been appointed to a professorship in one of America's most prestigious universities. This was an especially meaningful event for him since he had been a faculty member in this institution some years prior and had been forced to leave because his advancement was blocked by the lack of available professorships. He had been turned away from Mecca only to be invited to return. I came to congratulate him and naively expected to find an overjoyed individual. Instead I encountered a person suffering depression. The entire tenor of the discussion stimulated the image of a person who had geared himself toward a goal, achieved it, and now felt sad. It was as though the means, the things he did toward helping him achieve this desired goal had lost their essential value for him. If there was nothing more to achieve, if this was the pinnacle, of what use were the means? I saw him infrequently over the years and observed both that his work declined somewhat in frequency of output and in quality, although not in an immediately obvious way. Fortunately, since that time other institutions have risen in stature to compete with his own, and one, recently advanced to the summit, has appointed him to its faculty. I wonder what sort of affect this produced in him.

The "nowhere left to go" syndrome should be one that is well-known in athletic circles and not simply confined to individual endeavor. It is most commonly encountered in group or team activity when an underdog unit is especially prepared to do the "impossible," to beat a highly favored rival. If the goal is achieved it is not unlikely that performance immediately following, in the next game, will be lacklustre. My guess is that the likelihood of the letdown is directly related to the amount of artificial inflation used to help achieve the so-called "important" victory. If you are over-zealous and produce "the nowhere left to go syndrome" you are inviting disaster.

Closely allied to the above is the "what will I do for an encore" phenomenon after an unusual success. This feeling so frequently expressed by creative people, artists, writers, composers, touches all upon the completion of a long-term goal. Freud himself did not escape it. The story told about the origins of the recent controversial, posthumously published volume by Freud and former Ambassador Bullitt on Woodrow Wilson is pertinent to the case. After twenty years of history making publications and prior to a rash of theory revision in the last fifteen years of his life, Freud suffered a fallow period in his early sixties during which time he was visited by Bullitt, his former analysand. Freud expressed his displeasure over his own lack of activity, his age, and his inability to create. At this point he asked Bullitt what he was doing. Bullitt replied that he was writing a book about the great political figures he had encountered at the post-World War I diplomatic councils. Freud then asked who they were, and when he found that Wilson was among them he offered to collaborate on that chapter. Bullitt expressed some misgivings about publishing a book in which ninety percent of the effort would be his while the remainder would be offered by a world famous figure whose efforts might overshadow his own. Thereupon began the long history of the separate attempt to collaborate on an entire volume concerned with Wilson. The point of this tale for our purposes is that Freud had only one collaborator, Breuer, and that one in the emergent years of psycho-analysis, and never had a serious one afterward. It took the reality of depression to push him toward collaboration – the attempt to find an encore.

In this respect we are aware of the positive image in the sports world of the man who reaches the pinnacle and then retires, perhaps in part to avoid the constant challenge of having to provide an encore and the attendant negative affect when, in fact, it is done.

Finally, one might mention still another variant of the long term goal-completion- success phenomenon: the feeling of emptiness, as though something were missing. A simple but poignant indication of this is a common experience of middle-life when one's children are grown and embark, apparently well-prepared, on their own. If you were to ask young parents what their long-term goals were with regard to their children, a frequent response would include the end-product of an independent child able to meet the world by himself. Yet when this is achieved, the consequent affect is likely to be negative and the psychological image one of emptiness.

I've offered now a variety of examples of what I see as a puzzling human experience not very well explained by the existing and dominant theory of motivation. The circumstance of completing a long-term goal which culminated in failure, I shall not dwell upon, since attendant negative affect under such conditions would be predicted by common sense. In order to explain the puzzle, I think perhaps we should consider alternative ways of conceptualizing the motivational process or the relationship between means and ends. Part of this question was approached by the late Gordon Allport when he recognized the frailty of the distinction between means and end and put forth his concept of the functional autonomy of motives in which under certain conditions means may take on the properties of and become goals. An Allportian example might be that of the millionaire who in the beginning earned money as a means toward survival, comfort, power, etc., but who, after untold riches were achieved, continues his effort for nothing more than the sake of accumulating wealth, knowing full well that the additional accumulation provides him with nothing more than he already has or can have. In such a case, the original means becomes "functionally autonomous" or independent from the original goal and becomes a desirable goal in and of itself. While such a process undoubtedly occurs in human nature, it doesn't help to explain our puzzle and, in fact, causes us to wonder about the specific conditions under which a means can become functionally autonomous. If this were an automatic process, our difficulty would stop here, because I would maintain that the key to the problem generated by long-term goal → completion → negative affect is in the *loss of the means*. What is lamented is the loss of the means, that seemingly unimportant activity en route to a goal which provides the stuff of which the gratification of everyday life is composed.

Why is it then, you might ask, that man doesn't seem to be aware of the importance of the means. It seems simple enough when stated. The answer, of course, is that some men are aware of it and, in recent history, the most notable example was the functionalist philosopher and educator, John Dewey. In his book, *Human Nature and Conduct,* he described a radical departure from the traditional view of means-end relationships. He saw ends or the chief property of goals being that of mobilizing and organizing activity. The emphasis here is on the activity itself and not on the achieving of the end state. Dewey describes the process in the following manner. "Certain activities arise naturally or instinctively as a function of the condition in which man finds himself. They afford gratification and man seeks a way of perpetuating them. Man did not learn to throw or shoot because there were targets, but rather he created targets in order to continue a pleasurable activity which in a sense he discovered but did not plan. His intellect serves him to perpetuate that which gratifies him."

As I see it, Dewey's analysis of means-end relationships comes into conflict with a dominant value of our achievement-oriented culture and this conflict produces the answer to our puzzle. If man intrinsically values the gratification from the exercise of the means and is extrinsically driven toward the achievement of goals, when he completes he faces the loss of the means and his ensuing affect is perfectly understandable as a grief reaction. In some sense, Western man has been taught a pain producing ideology, namely that the achievement of an end state is the ultimate reward. As soon as he interiorizes this ideology, he is in for disappointment. Let me give you some examples from widely differing realms.

The problem faced by the Biblical figure, Job, may serve to illuminate this point. His lament is one which we have all shared to some extent at one time or another in our lives. "Why did it happen to me?" Job reviewed the history of his own life which was replete with good works all intended as means toward an ultimate reward. His puzzlement and anguish resulted from the fact that he saw the means only as instruments through which the final goal could be achieved, and not as primary value laden activities in and of themselves. It was only this simple and tenuous connection that he made which produced his pain and caused him to ask a question which could not be answered by logic but only by an affirmation of faith. He lost the value of the means and thus the daily gratification which they produced. If he had understood the time honored adage that "virtue is its own reward," he would have had less occasion to ponder the imponderable and he would have continued to enjoy gratification, even in the midst of his misery.

A further instance of this ideology may be gleaned from an examination of romantic love and courtship. It has come to my attention frequently enough as a psychologist that the early years of marriage may be particularly difficult. A typical common sense explanation for this is given by the statement that people need time in order to get used to one another.

I would suggest another set of possibilities or perhaps comment on what I believe is an essential part of what they must get used to. The beginning of the difficulty does not stem from the discovery that the husband snores or that the wife looks considerably different without her makeup. These I would maintain are symptoms after the fact. The real problem grows out of the fact that courtship as a means of social interaction contains within it a set of gratifying activities or means which are likely to be lost if they are conceived as only being ways of winning the desired object. As soon as the ultimate question regarding marriage is answered in the affirmative and the chase is over, the occasion for doubt arises. Courtship as a means to an end loses its value and somehow the relationship changes. When this occurs there is a period of crisis in which new reasons for maintaining the old means must be established or new gratifying means for different goals must be introduced in order for the relationship to survive.

A third example of this basic point may be seen in the activity of revolutionaries who either wither on the vine or seek their fortunes elsewhere when the objective is achieved. It is a most difficult matter to maintain the means of a violent opposition when you, in fact, become the essence of the establishment. To maintain the means, one must seek an outside enemy or run off to seek new opportunities elsewhere. It is not the usual case in history that revolutionary leaders served in the dual role of fomenting the revolt and then serving to lead their country successfully in peace. There are notable exceptions, but the violent means are usually maintained to stifle the real or imagined opposition. A clear example of the revolutionary who sought new pastures to maintain the means may be found in the recent tragic history of the hero of extreme radical groups, Che Guavera.

Let us return now to our original phenomenon, the appearance of negative affect after successful completion of a long-term goal and ask how man can avoid this disappointment. One way in which this might be accomplished is by recognizing the importance of the means in and of themselves and thus providing continuing channels for their exercise. In some ways this solution is intuitively known by all people. Take for example the problems of the eventual separation of child from parent, an extraordinarily significant problem in human development. We don't point the child toward this particular end directly or consciously, but instead give him the means for establishing warm, intimate human relationships and we continually expose him in ever widening circles to those circumstances in which he can practice those means. In that way we tend to minimize the grief reaction which is attendant upon the loss of a love object and to which I would liken our initial phenomenon. The pattern for success in this respect is practiced more directly by some people and one in particular I would like to call to your attention.

The painter, Pablo Picasso, is internationally recognized for his genius, his productivity, and his enjoyment of the world. If one examines his reported work habits in light of our discussion, a possible solution to the means-end problem becomes evident. It is said that Picasso never confines himself to a single canvas at a time. His studio is filled with work in all stages of progress and his working time is occupied in adding to any canvas to which he feels he can contribute at the time. When a work reaches completion it is replaced by a blank canvas joining the other in progress. In that way the "encore" phenomenon is avoided. Completion in the ultimate sense is never reached and the means can be continually exercised. Investment of energy or interest is never wholly centered on one thing for long periods of time and as a work nears completion interest is transferred to work in earlier stages of progress. What is called for here is a diversification of investment. In Picasso's case it may be within the same realm, painting. For others, this may not be as easily achieved, and thus the diversification should include other activities. Physical activity, whether in sports or hobbies, has this possibility for most human beings when it is seen as a means activity and not simply as a means to an end.

You may now be wondering what all of this has to do with your central set of interests and I must confess that I am not at all certain. I would like, however, to discuss a problem which I see as relevant to my own time of life, the so-called "middle years," as it relates to your own considerations. There is something about being over forty and desk bound that produces a mild state of discomfort. The fatigue produced by physical inactivity, especially when coupled with the frustrations of intellectual achievement, is not likely to produce positive affect. What stops one then from embarking on a program to remedy this situation? The usual excuse is a lack of time, but this I find to be a catch-all which tends to obscure the underlying reasons. In part I would attribute the reluctance to the misplaced emphasis on means-end relationships in accord with the position I have generally outlined. Two sets of people come to mind in elaborating this statement. The one includes those people who were athletes in earlier days and who reached a fair level of success in the sports in which they participated. They frequently find it difficult to pick up the thread because they can no longer reach the same level of skill which once was theirs. There is something sad about watching former major leaguers perform at an "old-timers" game unable to execute the simple graceful movements which were the marks of their skill, or a former basketball player who "fakes the opponent out of his socks" only to realize that he no longer has the coordination to take advantage of the opportunity he has created. These people typically carry around with them an achievement image which cannot be satisfied by "hacking around" for fun. Lack of performance is too often associated with shame and may even restrain them from entering new activities with which they have had little earlier contact.

The second group includes those who in earlier years were non-participants because of limited skills or lack of interest. These people find it equally hard to begin because they must overcome the initial inhibition fostered by memories of failure attempts and the shame which it likely produced. In some respects these people present a greater challenge because the means of physical activity may never have produced gratification in the past.

As I see it, the chief ingredient for overcoming inertia in this age group is to provide them with an intrinsically important long-term goal which can never in actuality be totally achieved, but which in practice include means which do in themselves provide immediate gratification. Physical activity has within it just such a possibility. For here one can capitalize on one of man's chief implicit values, the maintenance of health and the consequent prolongation of life. In this instance we are dealing with a complex goal, the overcoming of entropy, which continually challenges man, but one which even in fantasy man finds difficult to maintain. Eternal youth was not even achieved in Barrie's *Peter Pan* nor in Wilde's *Dorian Gray,* nor in Hilton's *Lost Horizons.* Yet the wish is so great that it leads man into all sorts of endeavor to seek the answer and forces him to adopt a strategy to prolong life even in the face of untold misery, as in terminal illnesses.

The first two parts of the formula are conjoint and really cannot be considered separately. The goal by itself is not sufficient, as we can see from the large numbers of people who cannot break the destructive habits of tobacco smoking, excessive alcohol intake, and overeating. One must couple the goal with an intrinsically satisfying activity which in itself is not antithetical to the goal. The fatigue of muscular activity in proper proportions carries with it a psychological feeling of well being. To experience this in conjunction with the idea that it is helping to slow down eventual entropy is a combination hard to beat.

There is, however, a third important aspect to the formula which must be introduced in order to overcome the inertia of the two groups of people I have described in my age range.

The prescribed activity must have the dual characteristics of being performed immediately, without training, and further being improved with practice. The first aspect capitalizes on the principle of the positive nature of reinforcement or reward. One of the real difficulties in teaching complex motor skills like golf or tennis or skiing to middle aged people is that there are well defined outside standards against which to measure one's performance and early failure may act as a deterrent to continuing effort. One must conceive then of an activity which is a natural part of the human equipment which if exercised near capacity, and capacity can change as a function of practice, continues one along the path of an elusive but believable goal.

The imagery I have just used, "along the path," provides the background for the denouement. For by now you must have realized that you have already discovered the secret activity which contains all of these ingredients, jogging. Its popularity among my colleagues puzzled me for some time. Now I think I understand it somewhat better. Should the realistic limitations of my golf score ever overcome the pleasures I get from the walk, the company, and the occasional thump of a well-hit ball, I will seek the solace of running for running's sake, and for the sake of my good health.

The Pragmatism of Clark Hetherington

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I.

Physical education is a child of the twentieth century. Although the groundwork had been laid in the last quarter of the preceding century, it was not until the lifetime of many who are present in this room today that the intellectual and social components inherent in organized physical activity were recognized and physical education became an integral part of the public school curriculum.

The acceptance of the view that the physical could be educational paralleled the development of an educational philosophy commensurate with an age being transformed by the triumphs of science. The transition from rationalism to empiricism, from the possibility to the actuality of scientific achievements, called for a reassessment of fundamental beliefs concerning the purpose of democratic institutions and the nature of man himself. The fact that man could change the environment was a hard and fast reality of the first order. That man could be changed by the environment was not yet accepted as fact. For centuries man was considered as a compound of animal instincts and spiritual essences. His nature was circumscribed by metaphysical dimensions that were timeless and eternal. When his finite personality developed in accordance with the infinite ideal, he achieved the end for which he was created.

The break from the belief that human nature was something fixed to the belief in the role of the environment in shaping human behavior did not come overnight. It emerged from new insights into human growth and development, new concepts as to how the person learns, and new interpretations of ways in which one's maximum potential can be achieved. Primacy had to be given to the values flowing from the dynamics of human experience. The conditions of learning had to be reorganized to provide for the optimum development of the total personality. In any such program of concern for the development of the whole person, proper emphasis had to be given to the benefits derived from play and physical activity.

II.

The importance of the physical – the sound mind in the sound body concept – was, of course, nothing new. What was new was the belief that physical activities had important contributions to make in their own right to the educational process. The person most responsible for developing the general theory of education that gave proper attention to play in the total program of the school was John Dewey. The impact of his writings in philosophy and education is matched by no other American. Largely unknown, except among physical educators, is the work of Clark Hetherington who developed and placed into practice a philosophy of play that was completely harmonious with the general theories of John Dewey. Working independently and in entirely different realms, both reached their conclusions at approximately the same time that play, when properly utilized, could supplement and reinforce the total educative experience.

In order to show the genesis of their thought, it would be well at this point to sketch briefly the biographies of these two men. Dewey was born in 1859 – a date that reveals much about the tenor of the times. This was the year of John Brown's raid, the publication of Darwin's, *Origin of Species,* the discovery of oil, the admission of Oregon into the Union, and the founding of the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company. Dewey was educated in the public schools and in the University of his native state of Vermont. Deciding to become a teacher of philosophy, he entered the Johns Hopkins University in 1882. His major professor was George Sylvester Morris who introduced him to the works of Hegel. Dewey found in the synthesis and encompassing world-view of Hegel the organic wholeness for which he was searching.

Johns Hopkins, the new research university, was in the process of formulating its own institutional philosophy. When it became apparent that the experimental-scientific approach of G. Stanley Hall was to dominate, Morris left Johns Hopkins for the University of Michigan. John Dewey, a young Ph.D. and an ardent Hegelian, soon followed Morris to Michigan. It was during his ten years at Michigan and Minnesota that Dewey subjected his own beliefs to intense philosophical analysis. Greatly influenced by William James, Dewey finally abandoned the absolutism and dialectics of Hegel in favor of the problematic, experimental outlook of the pragmatists. In 1894 he went to the newly-established University of Chicago as head of the Department of Psychology, Philosophy, and Education. The Laboratory School, which he founded two years later, provided the spawning ground for testing his theories that were to culminate in the educational philosophy known as progressivism. After ten years at Chicago, Dewey, in 1904, joined the faculty of Columbia University where he continued to exert a profound influence of the theory and practice of education as well as to continue his writings in philosophy. He retired from Columbia in 1930, but he continued to remain active until his death in 1952 at the age of ninety-two.[1]

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[1] All phases of Dewey's career are thoroughly covered in the literature. See, especially, Morton G. White, *The Origin of Dewey's Instrumentalism* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1943); George Dykhuizen, "John Dewey at Hopkins (1882-1884)," *Journal of the History of Ideas* 22: 103-06 (January-March, 1961); and John Dewey, "From Absolutism to Experimentalism," in G.P. Adams and W.P. Montague, (eds.), *Contemporary American Philosophy,* Vol. II. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930).

Dewey was one of the most prolific writers of all times. The bibliography of his works fills seventy-five pages in a standard-sized text,[2] and the committee at Southern Illinois University, which is editing his writings, is continually discovering other of his works not previously reported. In addition to writing on all branches of philosophy, Dewey addressed himself to the social concerns of the day. Perhaps the scope of his influence can best be ascertained in the remarkable tribute paid to him by the noted historian, Henry Steele Commager. Commager said, "It is scarcely an exaggeration to say for a generation no major issue was clarified until Dewey had spoken."[3]

While John Dewey used the method of philosophy to formulate his hypothesis, Clark Hetherington developed his theories from practical experience. Eleven years Dewey's junior, Hetherington spent his youth among rugged, unschooled construction workers in the rapidly-growing State of California. After toying with the idea of becoming an architect, he decided to enter a field where he would be working with others. He took special courses to prepare himself for Stanford University where he was graduated with its first class in 1885. An excellent gymnast, he was naturally inclined to spend considerable time in the Encina Gymnasium at Stanford. There he came to know Thomas D. Wood, its director, who soon made Hetherington his assistant and kept him on his staff for one year after graduation. Wood's concept of the "natural idea for play" made a deep and lasting impression on Hetherington. He had already begun to theorize as to the reasons for the distinctive differences in the character and personalities of the uncouth laborers he knew in the construction camps and those he met in the gymnasium at Stanford. The germ of an idea that play could change behavior had taken hold in his mind.

To test the validity of his belief that participation in games and sports could alter behavior, Hetherington secured a position at the state juvenile reformatory at Whittier, California. There, in 1896, he inaugurated the first recreational program ever held in a reform school. His work was so successful and the change in the attitudes of some of the boys was so remarkable that the authorities permitted Hetherington to take fourteen of the delinquents to Los Angeles to see a football game with only their word that they would not try to escape. According to George J. Fisher, in an article written thirty-two years later, Hetherington concluded that 80 per cent of the boys would not have been in the reform school if they had been able to participate in comprehensive and properly directed programs of play. This was based on the case studies Hetherington made of 480 boys in Whittier.[4]

This experience convinced Hetherington that planned recreational programs could change behavioral patterns and outlooks, but he felt he needed to know more about the psychological nature of man and the motivating factors that influenced human personality. This led him to enroll in 1898 at Clark University, where G. Stanley Hall had moved from Johns Hopkins. His studies under Hall and William H. Burnham did much to crystalize his thinking with regard to the contribution that play could make to character development.

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[2] Paul Schlipp (ed.), *The Philosophy of John Dewey,* second edition (New York: Tudor Publishing Company, 1951), pp. 611-86.

[3] Henry Steele Commager, *The American Mind* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950), p. 100.

[4] George J. Fisher, "Clark Hetherington, Pioneer, Indefatigable Worker, Student, Idealist, Organizer, Fighter," *American Physical Education Review* 33: 165-69 (March, 1928).

Hetherington made many changes in the four decades he was active in the profession. His first teaching position was at the University of Missouri where he was instrumental in establishing the NCAA and what is known today as the "Big Eight Conference." He then moved to the University of Wisconsin, served as State Supervisor of Physical Education for California, worked in the Institute of Educational Research in Teachers College of Columbia University, and, in 1924, organized the first professional curriculum for physical education teachers at New York University. Not the least of his accomplishments at N. Y. U. was to bring to the staff Jay B. Nash whom he had known in California since 1912. For reasons of health, Hetherington returned to California and to Stanford University in 1929 where he remained until his retirement in 1938.

Hetherington worked unceasingly to give status to physical education and to encourage young men and women of outstanding ability to enter this profession. His colleagues recognized his many contributions when he was given the first number in the American Academy of Physical Education when this body was reorganized in 1924. His other honors included an honorary Doctor of Pedagogy degree that was conferred on him by the University of Southern California. Hetherington, according to LaPorte, was the first person in the field of physical education to receive this recognition.[5]

III.

Dewey first enunciated his theories about play in a series of lectures before the Herbartian Society in 1895. Contending that a false physiology and psychology had hampered the correct interpretation of the relationship of bodily activities to the growth of mind, he asserted that "in so far as a physical act has to be *learned,* it is not merely physical, but is mental, intellectual in quality."[6] Dewey made passing references to the role of play in *The School and Society,* the monograph he wrote in 1899 based on his experiences with the Laboratory School, and in other articles published over the next dozen years. He did not, however, address himself expressly to play as an educative function until he wrote his major treatise on education – *Democracy and Education* – in 1916.

By then Hetherington had reached maturity in his own thinking. In *The Demonstration Play School of 1913,* an account of his summer experiences at Berkeley, he described in detail his curriculum based on play activities.[7] Previously, in an address before the National Education Association in 1910, he stated that physical education is fundamental to all education because education is the summation of meaningful experiences derived from some form of activity. The quality of the experience depended on the quality of the interaction with the environment. "All social sympathy, good or bad," Hetherington declared, "has its roots in play."[8]

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[5] William Ralph La Porte, "Honorary Degree Conferred on Dr. Hetherington," *Journal of Health and Physical Education* 6:19 (December, 1935). An excellent biography of Hetherington is given in Alice Oakes Bronson, "Clark Hetherington: Scientist and Philosopher" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Utah, 1955).

[6] John Dewey, *Interest and Effort in Education* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913), p. 68. (This volume, originally entitled "Interest as Related to [the Training of the] Will," was issued as a reprint of lectures originally published in the Herbart *Yearbook* for 1895).

[7] Clark Hetherington, *The Demonstration Play School of 1913* (University of California Publications in Education, Vol. V, No. 2. Berkeley: University of California Press, July 30, 1914).

This emphasis on the interaction of the individual with his environment is a basic tenet of experimentalism. Hetherington's implicit beliefs in reality as empirical and knowledge as instrumental are also consonant with Dewey's thoughts. Similarly, the definition that Hetherington gives of education is unquestionably progressivist: "Education is a process in which the infant is conducted from birth through the period of growth and development to maturity and in which his powers are developed and adjusted to a social order for complete living."[9] His plea for the educational effort to be placed on the basis of "practical living experience"[10] conforms to Dewey's concept that education should not be "isolated from the subject matter of life experiences."[11]

A similar relationship exists between the factor of intrinsic interest as the principal means for motivating the learner. The four objectives that Hetherington proposes for physical education — the organic, neuro-muscular, character development, and the intellectual[12] are also permeated with pragmatic thought.

IV.

The attempt to assess the direct influence Dewey may have had on Hetherington is not as easy to determine as it is with some of the other early leaders in physical education. For example, no less than forty references were made to Dewey and his close associate, William Heard Kilpatrick, in *The New Physical Education* by Wood and Cassidy.[13] Jesse Feiring Williams is another who frequently acknowledged his indebtedness to Dewey. Hetherington, however, was unique in that he did not refer to Dewey in any of his works. Most of his writings were printed in pamphlets, bulletins, proceedings, manuals, and journals that were published long before established indices to such periodicals were available. None of his writings carry any index, and like Dewey, he refrained from the use of bibliographies, footnotes, and references to his previous works. Hetherington wrote only one book, ***School Program in Physical Education***, and this was published late in his career, in 1922, without his prior consent.[14]

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[8] Hetherington, "Fundamental Education," National Education Association, *Proceedings*, 1910, p. 355.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 350.

[10] Hetherington, *The Demonstration Play School*, p. 244.

[11] Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916) p. 10.

[12] Hetherington, *School Program in Physical Education* (Yonkers: World Book Company, 1922) pp. 26-41.

[13] Thomas D. Wood and Rosalind Cassidy, *The New Physical Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927).

As far as I have been able to discover, his first published articles appeared in the ***American Physical Education Review*** between 1907 and 1910. These articles dealt with amateurism and the controversy involving intercollegiate athletics.

There is no question in my own mind that Hetherington developed his theories without having been stimulated by Dewey. Luther Gulick and Thomas Wood, with their views toward the natural idea of play, were the men in physical education who initially inspired Hetherington. Outside the field of physical education, G. Stanley Hall and William Burham were influential, and Hetherington himself stated that he learned much from his study of Rousseau and Froebel.[15] Since Hetherington started his initial experiments at Whittier the same year that Dewey began his Laboratory School, obviously there is no connection here. By the time Dewey achieved prominence as an educational theorist, Hetherington had already made his mark in physical education.

There is evidence, however, that Hetherington was quite familiar with Dewey's works by the 1920's. His much-quoted statement that the three philosophies which hampered the development of the play spirit in America – asceticism, scholasticism, and Puritanism[16] – could be substantiated from Dewey's ***Reconstruction in Philosophy*** and ***Human Nature and Conduct***. The following statement Hetherington made concerning discipline precisely underscores Dewey's position:

> Discipline by the teacher must be transformed into a self-judging process by the children themselves or by their self-chosen leaders. This is the natural tendency. Teachers must direct and develop the judging tendencies of children according to social standards in order to establish the capacity for self-direction.[17]

The same would hold for Hetherington's view toward values:

> Society has created and is still creating criteria for judging every phase of human behavior and every trait in development or in adjustment.[18]

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[14] Jay B. Nash told me this interesting story of how *School Program* was published. Hetherington's friends and colleagues for some time had urged him to write a text, and he was under contract to World Book Company, but he never felt his work was quite in the form he wanted. Some sort of collusion was arranged whereby World Book Company gave Hetherington tickets for a Carribean cruise during the summer vacation. While he was away, his colleagues took the manuscript, edited it, and gave it to W.B.C. for publication. By the time Hetherington returned, the book was in galley proofs.

[15] Hetherington, ***The Demonstration Play School***, p. 243.

[16] Hetherington, "The Needs of Physical Education," NEA ***Proceedings***, 1926, pp. 603-15.

[17] Hetherington, ***School Program***, pp. 97-98.

[18] ***Ibid.***, p. 41.

There is a danger, of course, in attempting to show a causal relationship by juxtaposition of quotations. For instance, one might quote Dewey as having been influenced by Hetherington. In *Democracy in Education*, Dewey writes:

> Experience has shown that when children have a chance at physical activities which bring their natural impulses into play, going to school is a joy, management is less of a burden, and learning is easier.[19]

This idea of Dewey, which he expressed in 1916, is the basic theme of Hetherington's, *The Demonstration Play School of 1913.* When Dewey wrote *Democracy and Education*, it is highly improbable that he had read any of Hetherington's articles.

In the absence of a direct assertion on the part of the writer as to those who had influenced his thinking, one can only make assumptions based on logical deductions. He needs to examine carefully the breadth of the works of the two authors, their writing styles, choice of words, and expression of new ideas in relation to publication dates.

Whether the fact can be established that one author was influenced by another is interesting, but academic. What is significant, in the case of Hetherington and Dewey, is that their writings demonstrate the organic connection of different factors operating in the culture. When a society is undergoing transitions in its value-systems, brought on by changes in economic motivations, national aspirations, or other causes, these changes invariably find their way into its social institutions. Dewey and Hetherington, working independently and in different milieu, were gripped by the idea that human nature can be changed and that education was the most effective means for accomplishing it. John Dewey was no athlete. He was not an outdoorsman, a sports' fan, or an active participant in recreational activities. Clark Hetherington was no classical philosopher or broad educational theoretician. Yet these men, from different vantage points but sharing a strong belief in the unlimited potentials of human experience, set forth a philosophy of education that enabled physical education to assume the important position it occupies in schools throughout America today.

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[19] Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, p. 228.

Serving Student Purposes

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The second half of the 20th Century is characterized by change, innovation, revision, and creation – all in a rapidly moving spiral of increasing momentum which turns evolution into revolution and acceleration into explosion. The speed of change endangers the validity of one's perspective and sense of values, and prompts one to either hang on to tradition for security, or to leap into the swiftly moving current with little regard for consequences. While change itself may be desirable and beneficial, our reactions of either heel-dragging or plunging may be unwise.

In higher education, and the area of physical education with which we are primarily concerned, changes and the effects of changes are as evident as in any other social process. To our earlier concerns for broad and liberal education, the achievement of sound objectives, academic freedom, and academic and professional integrity, now is added the voice of the student, always loud and sometimes clear, calling for educational relevancy, academic honesty, learning based upon reality and practicability, and student self-determination. The young consumers in our educational market-place are questioning tradition, pedagogical ritual, and ivory-tower aims and objectives – and there are times when their questioning makes sense. As we listen it becomes increasingly evident that, in higher education student goals and student purposes must be given careful, mature, and responsible consideration. It has been traditional for the mature and experienced experts to determine curricular aims and objectives, and to influence student acceptance of these as student aims and objectives. Now this process is being questioned – in the opinion of youth, no one over thirty years of age is to be trusted. The break from tradition is not necessarily a threat to a sound and substantial education, and it is not inconsistent with currently accepted trends in liberal education.

Actually, consideration of student purposes is neither revolutionary nor innovative, having been with us ever since John Dewey hit the scene. Many of us interested in college physical education are still too young to have been led up the garden path by the earlier mis-interpretations of Dewey's learner-centered curriculum and educational permissiveness, and at the same time we are too old to be trapped by immature and poorly analyzed existential self-determination. Hopefully, with experience and maturity, we are fairly ripe for a frankly pragmatic view of students' purposes in college-level physical education.

In the December, 1967, issue of the Research Quarterly, Barry Pelton presented "A Critical Analysis of Current Practices and Beliefs Underlying General Physical Education Programs in Higher Education". Following a somewhat traditional method, he sought to determine basic concepts which should be beliefs held by college and university physical educators, using such physical educators and academic deans as the jury which evaluated the tentative concepts drawn from an analysis of the appropriate literature. As a result, Pelton came up with ten "faculty purposes" of college and university physical education – the typical beliefs held by mature, experienced practitioners and leaders in the field.

Paraphrased, these adult objectives, or purposes, are: 1) biological fitness, 2) acceptable social competencies, 3) a satisfying level of motor skill, 4) an appreciation for and understanding of activity, 5) an aesthetic appreciation for the role of sports, 6) assistance in solving personal health problems, 7) appreciation of principles of ethical conduct, 8) opportunity for periods of total involvement, 9) development of safety skills in specific activities, and 10) development of skill in the interpretive process.

Are these adult conceived (and imposed) objectives generally accepted by the students who participate in the physical education programs? Through casual observation, accompanied by equally casual discussion with students, we find that 1) there is usually a high level of interest in personal fitness and physical conditioning, 2) they desire participation with others in activities outside the academic college program, 3) they usually seek higher levels of motor skill – even to the point of requesting higher level instruction, 4) they express only moderate interest in developing an appreciation for activity per se, 5) appreciation of the role of sports is of no immediate concern, 6) in the area of personal health problems they seek other routes for assistance, 7) they are not concerned with opportunities to develop ethical conduct, 8) many do use physical activities as an opportunity for total involvement, 9) their interest in safety skills is usually very low unless the desire for total involvement is very high, and 10) they express no interest in the development of skill in the interpretive process.

While it is apparent that there is some agreement in faculty and student purposes in physical education, it is equally apparent that there are significant differences which may seriously affect student motivation and the ultimate effectiveness of the program. Some of the long-range faculty purposes are not – maybe cannot be – understood and appreciated by typical undergraduate students. Some of the students' immediate goals may be overlooked by the faculty, with a consequent deterioration of student motivation. Student and faculty purposes in physical education are not dichotomous, for there is much basic agreement, but student purposes might well be examined more thoroughly to ascertain if such differences as do exist might be reconciled, so the program may become more effective in the estimation of both students and faculty.

It would be easy to dodge this issue by saying only that most students participate in physical education simply to fulfill a requirement for graduation. Such reasoning, both obvious and superficial, neglects the consideration of what college students actually do, in their free time and on a voluntary basis, in the area of physical activities and sports participation. Outside the physical education requirement, with credits and grades out of the picture, students still participate in physical activity. In what do they participate? And for what reasons?

First, students (both men and women, now) play on varsity teams, in highly organized team sports and highly demanding individual sports. They express enjoyment in top-level competition; they like the challenge of trying to win; they seek out these opportunities to work out, practice, and play in association with others – "this is where the other guys are"; they like the feeling of being in superior physical condition, and are especially satisfied after a strenuous and successful work-out; there is an ego-satisfaction in being recognized by team-mates and class-mates; and they enjoy learning to play a game better under a good coach.

Secondly, students voluntarily participate in intramural team and individual sports, representing social and living-unit groups. They enjoy participation with others in a satisfying physical activity; the demands on their time and physical talents is not excessive; the activities are usually scheduled so they can be assured of fairly regular participation; the incentive to win is present, but not dominating; there is pride in doing well for a team and adding status to a social unit; and, again, they feel physically better after a good work-out.

Thirdly, many students seek out instruction in specific skills by voluntarily registering for non-required sports classes. In some cases they desire to learn new sports skills, to develop abilities to participate in activities with their class-mates and friends. In other cases they seek to develop a higher level of expertness, particularly in individual activities such as bowling, golf, handball, swimming, dance, and skiing. There is a definite desire to improve themselves for their own satisfaction in participation and to make themselves socially more adaptable.

Fourthly, students join clubs where there will be regular opportunities for instruction and participation. Some of these clubs organize for the purpose of enhancing opportunities in activities commonly in the regular physical education program, but many clubs form for less traditional activities such as horsemanship, judo, skiing (including skiing jaunts to Austria), dance, sailing, and mountain climbing.

Fifthly, many students work out in individual exercise programs of calisthenics, weight-training, and jogging. These programs are scheduled by the students themselves, at their own convenience, and are intended primarily to develop personal physical fitness. The students express satisfaction in the "good" feeling following a strenuous work-out and in the increases in strength and endurance which they observe. Frequently these students will seek advice from a physical educator concerning the desirable progressions which should be followed.

Finally, students will play, and play, and play – as long as the facilities and equipment are available. They may not rationalize this activity as wholesome physical recreation, but their activities suggest that this is what they need and seek.

The extent to which the students participate voluntarily is somewhat difficult to determine, and certainly varies from one campus to another. Much depends upon the availability of space and equipment. On the speaker's campus, on any Fall afternoon between four and six o'clock, one may see eighty players in varsity and freshman football, sixty in varsity and freshman soccer, fifteen in cross-country, forty-eight playing tennis, one hundred and ten men in touch football, forty in women's soccer, another forty in field hockey, twenty in archery, about twenty shooting baskets in the gymnasium, twenty in varsity gymnastics, thirty in recreational swimming, twenty in handball, twenty in bowling (the limit of the facilities), plus an unknown number in the weight room, jogging on the track, or playing golf. At least 520 men and women are visible, participating in sports – one-eighth of the total student body active at one time, and all on a voluntary basis.

It would seem to be reasonable to capitalize on student energy to satisfy student physical education purposes by organizing the program along the lines indicated by student participation. Thus, all physical education, athletic, and physical recreational activities become parts of the physical education program and may be used to satisfy a requirement. The choice of activity, its level of expertness, and the intensity of participation, is left up to the student – the important point is that he participate.

The general trend in college curriculum is to reduce the specificity of numerous requirements, while maintaining a few general requirements in broad areas. It would not be inconsistent with this trend to require participation in physical education for a certain number of college terms, without specifying any one course or activity. It would not be inconsistent with faculty or student purposes to extend this participation requirement over the entire time a student is on the college or university campus. Every student involved in some form of physical education, athletic, or physical recreation activity throughout his college career becomes the challenging goal.

To keep any accurate record of involvement in this type of program it is necessary to develop a new concept of participation-credit to complement academic credit. Any student electing a course of instruction in a physical education, sport, or dance activity would receive academic credit. Another student electing varsity or intramural participation would receive participation credit – both would count toward the ultimate fulfillment of the requirement. Participation credit could be awarded for performance in any athletic or sport-club activity which might meet minimum standards established by the physical education department – standards of quality of supervision or instruction, amount of physical participation, considerations for safety and conditioning, and adequacy of program planning. All such approved activities would then be given course numbers, would appear on the regular college schedules, and be available for student registration. At the cessation of any such activity the student roster of participants would be turned into the recording bureau and, in time, the official transcript of each participant would reflect each period or term of physical activity participation.

If this type of program is organized to serve student purposes the institution must provide a wide range of available activities and a flexible schedule for the use of facilities. The very nature of the program makes this possible. By exploiting sports-clubs and commercial recreation opportunities, by recognition of off-campus sport and recreational organizations and programs, the number and range of approved activities may be almost limitless. By way of illustration, an institution may be located in an area where Winter sports are possible, yet have no facilities or staff of its own to conduct a program. Under the aegis of a Winter Sports Club, arrangements may be made with some nearby ski-slope for club rates, instruction, and scheduled use of the slopes. Members of the club would be entitled to a number of weeks of skiing, including a period of instruction each time followed by use of the tows and slopes. Instruction would be provided by the professional staff at the ski center, and equipment could be made available to students on a rental basis. By satisfying a pre-determined standard for participation a student could receive participation credit for an activity of his own choice, at no cost to the college for staff or equipment.

Equally novel and innovative arrangements are possible in the areas of trail-hiking, mountain climbing, sailing, competitive canoeing, SCUBA diving, horsemanship, judo and kerate, handball and squash, crew, or other activities not normally found in the traditional physical education program.

The challenge to the college or university is to make use of recognized and existing student purposes in physical education to further the achievement of recognized, existing, and longer range faculty and institution purposes in physical education. This should be possible by the establishment of minimum standards for participation, instruction, ethical conduct, basic conditioning, and desirable environmental conditions for those activities in which the students will voluntarily participate anyway. The college can provide a broad program which satisfies its purposes, in activities which have relevance for the students. What may appear to be a middle-of-the-road compromise between faculty and student purposes is, more realistically, a meeting of the minds and reconciliation of faculty and student purposes. The ultimate goal of willing and enthusiastic participation of all students in wholesome physical activity is a giant-step closer.

Surfeiters of Venerable Traditions

James L. Breen
Tulane University

We in physical education have held to some traditions which in many instances do not relate to our current philosophy, principles and objectives. We have done this perhaps to the excess that one might say a "sick" profession (service program), noting that this is a popular saying today (i.e., a "sick" society) for anything wrong or where problems are so complex that there are as many answers as there are capillaries in our bodies. To derive an answer for our "sick" profession, one must set out to define the objectives which are obtainable. In reviewing the literature, one will find objectives such as develop muscular strength, cardiovascular respiratory endurance, agility, flexibility, and power. In addition, knowledge and appreciation of skill, strategy, rules, history and terminology are included. This is, as we can readily see, a problem of complexities which again can be answered in many ways, depending upon the teacher as well as the activity. Needless to say, one can immediately see that the above objectives cannot be met in total in a semester course of an activity. Like mathematics, one cannot realize a body of knowledge of Algebra to give the same knowledge as Calculus. Obviously, they are both called mathematics, but just as obviously, they are not the same. The emphasis must then be placed on special areas within each of the activities being taught or learned. Perhaps learned is the better of the two words since this, we hope, is the end result. To look further at this word (to learn), we can find in many instances that we put tradition above the objective to be learned. Most of us some time in our careers as teachers have said that all students must wear a certain type and color of uniform, knowing that this uniform has nothing to do with the subject matter to be learned. I have had students ask what difference does it make what kind of uniform I wear as long as I feel comfortable. My basic answer has been that it looks better to see everyone in the same type of uniform. One student challenged me on this premise by saying that his history teacher did not require all his students to wear certain clothing to attend his class. He could not see how this affected his learning process. With some thought, I would have to agree with the student that the uniform will not increase his ability to learn.

Some have said that the structuring of a certain type of uniform is a form of discipline. Is it our role as teachers to teach discipline? By requiring something for the sake of discipline, one undermines the importance of other requirements which are indeed necessary in achieving our real objectives. The principle of *requirement* has to be defined relative to these real objectives. According to Fraleigh and Gustofsen, "*Webster's New World Dictionary* lists, among others, these definitions of "requirement": something needed, a necessity, need. Under requisite, essential and need are given as synonyms." If then, we take the definition of need or essential and apply this to kind of uniform, it appears to me that the objective of learning has left the physical education class. We have taken a learning concept of how to follow the order set forth by the instructor or department, which is again discipline. I then might ask if this is the best climate for maximum learning of the real objectives of physical education.

On the other side of the coin, each of us has been told that the instructor should be in proper uniform, which in most cases, is a gym uniform of some type. From my experience, I have found that the so-called dressing out is interpreted by the student as providing an atmosphere of play as opposed to learning. I have experimented clinically with classes in badminton and found that when I dressed in a suit and tie or lab coat, that there is a better atmosphere for learning. By this I do not want to imply that play is bad, but that play is more meaningful and fruitful if learning to play the game properly is achieved first. A few years ago, I read a joke in the *Reader's Digest.* "In Culver City, California, a mail carrier reported to the postmaster that a dog had bitten him on the leg that morning.

"Did you put anything on it?" asked the postmaster.

"No," the postman replied. "He liked it just as it was." I sometimes think that progress or change to us is similar to the man's leg; we like it just as it is, not giving thought to possible improvement through change.

Our profession has been accused of providing fads and frills instead of education. It may be that in some cases, this could be justified. I recall a student asking me why it was mandatory for him to take a shower. My answer as you might guess was that it is healthy, as well as fashionable, to have a clean body. However, after giving this statement some thought, I would have to agree that the shower (like the uniform) did not contribute to the learning of the objectives.

I would like to point out that I have not presented these fads as being right or wrong; however, it might be well to direct our thinking toward our subject matter and innovations and changes in procedures. I would hastily add that subject matter is not the only purpose of our being and that some of our biases should not be left out completely. We should perhaps look more to the priorities and realize that we can answer only a small segment of the many objectives of Physical Education, in any given course. In other words, the very fact of our stubbornness in sticking with tradition may be good in that change for its own sake is not necessarily beneficial. As someone once said, "Stubbornness does have its helpful features. You always know what you are going to be thinking tomorrow!"

A Challenge Answered

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University of Illinois – Chicago Circle

This paper deals with a challenge, in the form of a proposed reduction, to the basic instruction requirement in physical education at the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle. Before relating details however, it would perhaps be well to present a few remarks relative to the background or history of this institution.

This branch of the University of Illinois, established initially as a two-year undergraduate division and originally known as the Chicago Undergraduate Division of the University of Illinois, was founded in 1946 for the primary purpose of providing educational opportunities for returning veterans of World War II. Its initial enrollment was comprised of over sixty per cent veterans. The school consisted of the Colleges of Commerce, Engineering, and Liberal Arts and Sciences, and today has grown to include the Colleges of Architecture and Art, Education, of which the School of Physical Education is a part, and a Graduate College.

After a few years of operation, it became apparent that not only was this branch's initial mission being fulfilled, but that it also might have an important role in the future of higher education in the metropolitan area. As early as 1950 and thereafter, student and faculty interest in the development of a permanent, four-year campus was being more frequently expressed – such expression being consonant with long standing university interests and plans.[1] The time had come for the university to assume the responsibility for leadership and action in attempting to solve the educational problems which were rapidly approaching the critical state. With its years of experience, its resources, and its expertise, the University of Illinois was perhaps more qualified to undertake such a responsibility than any other state agency. The establishment of a State Board of Higher Education in 1961 was also destined to play an instrumental role.

Reports in 1958[2] and 1959[3] presented concepts and programs for a new four-year school. Demographic information[4] indicated a substantial increase in the projected college age population in the not-too distant future. The impact of the "war babies" was certain to be felt. State-wide concern for the ability to accommodate these students led to a comprehensive analysis of projected needs. Results reinforced the necessity for immediate planning of programs and facilities if the rapidly increasing number of students would subsequently be accommodated.

Despite efforts to publicize the need for state-supported higher education in the metropolitan area, the public was slow in overcoming long standing apathy and failed in 1958, to support a referendum which would have provided financial assistance for the new campus in Chicago and other state institutions of higher education. It was not until two years later after an intensive campaign that the referendum was successful. Higher education finally received support, and the new campus in Chicago was about to become a reality.

It goes without saying that planning and constructing a new campus are no small tasks. Much time and effort by many people are required. Without belaboring the details, it is suffice to state that the first of an original three (now four) phases of construction of a four-year, commuter campus consisting of thirteen buildings with an initial capacity of 9,000 students was built in approximately two years and officially occupied in February of 1965.

This was probably the fastest growing educational institution in the country, if not the world – an enrollment of almost 3,900 in 1946; 5,500 in 1965, when the mid-year move to the new campus was made; 14,000 in 1968, and a projected enrollment of 25,000 by 1974;

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[1] Report of the Committee on Curricular Expansion, "A Concept for the University of Illinois in Chicago (Lincoln Campus)" (University of Illinois, Chicago Undergraduate Division, May 1, 1959), p. 41.

[2] "Report of the University Committee on a Four-Year Program for the Chicago Undergraduate Division" (University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, December 12, 1958), pp. 32.

[3] "Report of the Committee on Curricular Expansion", op. cit.

[4] Peter P. Klassen and Robert E. Corley, "Indicators and Trends: Higher Education, State of Illinois, 1950-1980" (University of Illinois, Chicago Undergraduate Division, September 1961), pp. 65.

a school whose first home had been a pier-warehouse jutting five-sixths of a mile into Lake Michigan; an institution which in 1966 had undergone the laborious process of converting from the semester to the quarter system; and an institution whose mission, programs, and other aspects of operation were being qualitatively and quantitatively reviewed.

Problems are common in the daily operation of any large organization however, the nature, variety, and magnitude of those which beset this rapidly emerging institution were seemingly endless. New staff and faculty; new and expanding educational and auxiliary programs; a rapidly increasing student population; a partially completed physical environment in which there was frequent relocation of personnel and functions; and requests for resources far in excess of those available – these were some of the conditions which existed and comprised the background wherein the challenge to the physical education requirement developed.

The two-year, all-university, physical education requirement is one of the few remaining at the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle. The first threat to its continuance appeared in 1965 when the educational policies committees of the various colleges were requested to respond to a statement originating in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and which, in essence, proposed that each college be allowed to determine its own graduation requirements. Since there was support for this proposal, it was inevitable that the matter would reach the Faculty Senate where it would eventually be resolved. In the meantime the Physical Education faculty began to prepare for the upcoming challenge by considering various alternatives and preparing and distributing a support document which included a statement of philosophy and objectives of the current program, rationale underlying the two-year requirement, results of surveys related to the issue, the American Medical Association resolution supporting physical education programs, as well as statements by former Presidents Eisenhower and Kennedy.

Meanwhile within the deliberations of the Senate Educational Policy Committee, the matter of the physical education requirement was eventually brought to a vote. The motion to reduce the requirement and remove physical education as an all-university requirement was supported by a four to three vote with one abstention. It was with this action then, that the following proposal appeared as an item in the report of the Educational Policy Committee at the Senate meeting of April 11, 1967:

> "The Committee recommends to the Senate that the requirement in physical education at Chicago Circle be reduced to one year (3 quarters) and that physical education be removed as an item under all-university requirements, thus making it possible for the individual Senates to set the minimum."[5]

It might be well at this point to explain the reference to "individual Senates". The University of Illinois is comprised of three separate, autonomous branches; the Urbana-Champaign campus, the Chicago Medical Center, and the Chicago Circle campus. Each has a senate which decides educational policy for its own operation. A Senate Coordinating Council is charged with the responsibility of resolving matters relevant to all three campuses.

When the foregoing proposal was presented in the form of a motion, the three dissenting voters immediately submitted a minority report which stated in part:

> "It is the belief of the three committee members representing the minority report that an adequate study of the time required to implement an effective program of Physical Education has not been made, with the result that the

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[5] Senate Minutes, "Report of Senate Committee on Education Policy" (University of Illinois at Chicago Circle. April 11, 1967), p. 118.

> majority resolution represents an arbitrary cut-back in time without consideration of the existing or alternative programs of Physical Education . . ."[6]

The report concluded with the following motion:

> "In order to inform itself of the needs of an effective program in Physical Education at UICC, the Faculty Senate shall authorize the establishment of a Special Committee on this subject. This Special Committee shall consist of one member from each of the Colleges and Divisions at UICC. These members shall be appointed by the Committee on Committees from among the Faculty Members of the rank of Associate Professor and above. A Chairman shall be elected by the Committee from among its members."
>
> "This Committee shall select a Panel of Three Specialists from outside the University of whom at least two shall be Specialist in Physical Education to advise them in their study . . ."[7]

When voted upon, the minority report was supported. A battle had been won, but the war was not yet over.

In the course of implementing the first recommendation of the minority report, the Committee on Committees selected a six-member committee according to the conditions enumerated. Since the academic year was rapidly coming to a close, the committee was not able to meet, and the issue was held in abeyance until the ensuing academic year.

The first meeting of the Special Committee to Study the Physical Education Requirement was held in November of 1967. It was organizational in nature and resulted in the election of a chairman and secretary. Subsequent business was directed toward planning future deliberations and establishing guidelines for fulfilling the charge of the committee. One of the most immediate tasks was the selection of a panel of consultants. Other concerns listed were: the education of students within an urban context; the needs of urban students; the emerging use of leisure time and recreation; the issue of academic free choice; curriculum implications of a physical education requirement of varying duration; administrative implications, such as budget, FTE (full-time equivalent) staff requirements; college self-determination; the academic status of the institution; departmental implications of a professional versus a service program emphasis; and accreditation.[8] It was felt that these aspects of the total issue might necessitate further consideration since there was a degree of relevancy in all of them.

To assist in the process of gathering information, consultants were to be sought. Criteria for their selection were established. From an extensive list of qualified professionals, five were selected, and it is interesting to note that upon invitation, each was willing and able to come. Sessions with the consultants began in December and continued through February. Each session lasted approximately three hours and generally consisted of an expression of views and ideas on the subject followed by a "question and answer" period.

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[6] Senate Minutes, "Minority Report on the Resolution of the Senate Committee on Educational Policy to Eliminate the All-University Requirement in Physical Education and to Set the UICC Minimum Requirement at One Year" (University of Illinois at Chicago Circle. April 11, 1967), p. 148.

[7] Ibid.

[8] "Report of the Special Committee to Study the Physical Education Requirement" (University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, May 13, 1968), p. 1.

Following the appearance of the final consultant, the committee proceeded to consider the information received. In so doing it found that a number of concepts and principles appeared to be of basic importance. These were:

1) It is equally difficult to justify a one-year as a two-year requirement.
2) Physical fitness is one aspect of physical education which should receive considerable attention and about which the school can make a definite contribution relative to achievement.
3) Needs of students should be the basis for programs. At the college and university levels, individual recreational activities should be available and emphasized.
4) Everyone does not need the same amount and kinds of experiences which are typically found in a physical education program.
5) Evaluation and appraisal of fitness and motor and skill ability are essential.
6) The matter of credit and grades is, in a sense, almost incidental to the ultimate aim of physical education which is continued concern and participation in vigorous physical activity and/or physical recreation.
7) The learning of motor and sports skills is a basic requirement for enjoyable participation.
8) Although knowledge should be transmitted, students prefer activity-oriented programs. Methods should be employed which assure learning of essential information commensurate with college level work.
9) As a social institution, the colleges and universities have a responsibility to the student in the area of health and well-being. The functions of the health services should emphasize preventative as well as therapeutic measures.

Prior to the preparation of the final report, the committee invited the director and department heads of the Division of Physical Education to offer any support or information they might wish. In preparing to respond they felt that a positive approach rather than a defensive stand should be taken. It was also clear that the committee and, very likely, the Senate membership would not support a continuation of the two-year requirement as it currently existed. By developing and presenting a "new" program which incorporated many of the recommendations of the consultants, it was reasonable to expect greatly increased probabilities for support both by the committee and the Senate. Such a program was planned.

The proposed program as submitted was basically a two-year requirement, however the extensive use of diagnostic testing and comprehensive proficiency examinations throughout the first year was intended to reduce the number of students continuing into and through the second year. This move was a concession which was felt necessary. A few committee members indicated that the proficiency standards should be such that allow seventy-five per cent of an entering freshmen class to complete the requirement in one year. There was opposition to this view as being unrealistic. It would, of course, be possible to implement such a procedure at the expense of acceptable standards, quality, and achievement, and furthermore the program would be governed by attempts to maintain certain percentages and variable quotas from year to year rather than the needs of students. One of the statements in a final recommendation was modified by excluding reference to a specific quota and substituting a less restrictive phrase. (This will be brought to your attention shortly.) Exactly what effects the implementation of this particular recommendation will have in the future is difficult to ascertain at this time.

As a result of its deliberations, the committee prepared its final report, part of which enumerated provisions which an effective program of physical education make. These were:

1) "The transmission of knowledge concerning the physiological bases of physical health

and physical fitness, modes of developing and maintaining them, and their relation to other educational, recreational, and social needs;

2) participation in one or more individual and team sports designed to develop some motor skills and thereby encourage future participation in some useful form of physical activity;

3) special emphasis on the diagnostic assessment of each individual's particular physical education needs, in terms of reasonable norms of physical fitness (cardio-vascular efficiency, aerobic capacity, body weight, and muscular strength), and the techniques for achieving them."[9]

It further recommended that the all-university requirement for physical education be modified in the following ways at Chicago Circle:

1) "All students shall be required to take a minimum of three quarters of physical education, totaling three hours credit. We consider it desirable that the several colleges accredit these courses toward graduation.

2) All students, who, at the end of three quarters have not achieved reasonable levels of physical fitness, knowledge, and motor proficiency shall be required to continue in the physical education program until they attain such levels, or until they have completed six quarters.

3) The diagnostic norms shall be set at a level that permits a substantial majority of students to meet the requirement within three quarters. However, regardless of the time of termination of the formal requirement, students who may reasonably be expected to profit from further participation shall be encouraged to continue, preferably for credit.

4) Students who cannot meet specified norms after three quarters, but who, on the basis of diagnostic evaluation, are unlikely to profit from further participation shall be exempted from further requirements. This special action shall require approval of the department of physical education, the health service, and the college in which the student is enrolled."[10]

This, then, is the culmination of the efforts of the Special Committee to Study the Physical Education Requirement. The report was made to and supported by the Faculty Senate in June of 1968.

Change is the essence of growth and improvement. The responsibility now challenging the School of Physical Education is the development of the finest, most effective program possible according to the recommendations set forth. This is envisioned as a more personalized program which will aid each student in his quest for enrichment, well-being, and development now and in the future. Much remains to be accomplished before the implementation of the program in 1971.

In closing, I present the question, Was the challenge successfully answered?

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[9] Ibid., p. 2.

[10] Ibid., p. 3.

The Use of Limited and Off-Campus Facilities for College Physical Education Programs

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University of Illinois – Chicago Circle

The use of off-campus facilities for athletic competition, recreational purposes, and physical education instructional programs is not unusual. At the 1968 National Convention of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Keith Skogman of Texas Lutheran College reported the results of a survey he supervised which indicated that over 20% of 263 colleges and universities in the United States and Canada used off campus facilities for golf, bowling, swimming, and baseball. However, I do not believe physical education programs as extensive as the programs at the University of Illinois at Chicago Circle have ever been conducted with as few campus physical education facilities as found on the Circle Campus.

When the Circle officially opened in the spring semester of 1965, over 3800 students were enrolled in the basic programs, almost 150 students in the professional curricula, and 1500 students in the intramural program. In addition, the intercollegiate athletic program had grown to eleven sports. The task of conducting these programs was accomplished without a gymnasium on the campus. Today, about 6000 students are in the basic programs, close to 300 are in the professional curricula, over 4000 students will participate in intramural activities during the school year, and fourteen teams comprise the intercollegiate athletic program. Campus facilities are now available for many of the physical education activities but a physical education building is still nonexistent.

Prior to the opening of the Circle Campus, an investigation was carried out by the Director of Physical Education and a number of his staff to determine the existing athletic facilities that were available in the surrounding area of the campus. The decision was then made to negotiate for the use of the Duncan Y.M.C.A. facilities, located almost two miles from the campus, and to continue the use of the Navy Pier gymnasium, located approximately four miles from the campus. The Duncan Y.M.C.A. was obtained for the 1965 spring semester for the Women's programs, the Men's swimming courses, and one professional course (Fitness Activities) offered by the Men's Department. The Men's basic program and most of the professional, intramural, and intercollegiate programs were scheduled in the Navy Pier gymnasium. As in former years, the Chicago Park District and the Chicago Board of Education supplied outdoor facilities for some of the athletic teams and the United States Naval Armory was used by the swimming team.

The off campus facilities used for all the instructional programs as well as the recreational and intercollegiate programs created an enormous problem of transportation. Arrangements were made with the Chicago Transit Authority to transport the students to the physical education facilities. Busses departed from the Circle Campus on the hour and from the off campus locations on the half hour.

To provide ample time to travel, change clothes, shower, and participate in activity, the length of the class periods had to be modified. The basic instructional classes were scheduled for forty-five minutes of activity instead of thirty minutes and met twice each week instead of three times. The students, consequently, were required to schedule a two hour period for physical education on Mondays and Wednesdays, Tuesdays and Thursdays, Wednesdays and Fridays, or Mondays and Fridays.

In September, 1965, an $11,000,000 student union was completed which includes shower and locker facilities as well as a 25 yard swimming pool, five handball courts, a weight training room, a dance studio, sixteen bowling lanes, a room used for archery, fencing, and golf, and a small auditorium. The Women's Physical Education programs and some of the Men's programs were transferred to this building. Also in 1965, a factory which had been procured by the City of Chicago as part of a land clearance project adjacent to the Circle Campus was acquired by the University. The factory, which formerly was used for the manufacture of girdles, was then renovated at a cost of approximately $200,000 to provide additional facilities for the Men's Physical Education programs, the College of Architecture and Art, and the Office of Admissions and Records. Approximately 35,000 sq. ft. of space was allocated to the Division (now School) of Physical Education. Use of the Duncan Y.M.C.A. and Navy Pier was discontinued because of the exorbitant cost and the inconvenience to the students. The semester rental cost for the Duncan Y.M.C.A. was $9,200; the cost of bussing students to the Y.M.C.A. and Navy Pier was roughly $62,000.

The use of the acquired factory, known as the Racine Avenue Building, and the student union, known as the Chicago Circle Center, for the indoor physical education activities of the basic program created another problem. The Racine Avenue Building does not have a ceiling high enough for activities such as badminton, basketball, and volleyball. The Chicago Circle Center has a high ceiling in one area only – in the small auditorium. As a result, all the physical education indoor activities in the basic program for men do not require a high ceiling. The courses offered include: Developmental Activities, Beginning Swimming, Intermediate Swimming and Water Polo, Advanced Swimming and Diving, Life Saving and Skin Diving, Individual Tumbling Stunts, Double Tumbling Stunts, Sabre Fencing, Foil Fencing, Boxing, Wrestling, Personal Defense Activities, Weight Training, Weight Lifting, Archery, Handball, Bowling, Backyard Sports, Prescribed Exercises, Ballroom Dance, and American Square Dance. The auditorium, however, is used for the professional courses that include badminton and volleyball. In addition, the basketball course offered in the professional program, as well as basketball team practice, is conducted in the Old Town Boys Club which is located two blocks from campus.

In September, 1966, another building, the Central National Bank, was acquired by the University. The Psychology Department, one of the departments in Engineering, and ROTC share this building, now known as the Roosevelt Road Building, with the School of Physical Education. A garage, formerly owned by the bank, is also used by the School of Physical Education and ROTC. About $6,000 has been spent in the installation of gymnastic equipment and in the construction of locker and shower facilities, a training room, a test and measurements laboratory, and a storage room.

The possibility of constructing a plastic bubble over an asphalt floor was investigated. After inspecting the facility at Homewood-Flossmoor High School, south of Chicago, the Director of Physical Education recommended the construction of the bubble. However, the proposal was rejected because a city ordinance requires a facility the size of a gymnasium to be of permanent construction.

Outdoor space around the campus has been converted into softball diamonds, football fields, a soccer field, a 300 yard circular track, jumping pits, and a shot-put area. In addition, nine concrete tennis courts were constructed across the street from the Chicago Circle Center during the first phase of campus construction.

Off-campus facilities are presently obtained on a yearly basis for the professional baseball and basketball courses and for the following intercollegiate athletic teams: baseball, basketball, cross country, football, golf, ice hockey, and soccer. Arrangements are made each year with the Chicago Park District for the use of baseball fields, a cross country course, and a soccer field. These facilities do not require rental fees. The Chicago Board of Education provides a stadium, free of charge, for the Circle's track meets. Facilities rented include a gymnasium owned by the Chicago Boys Club, the gymnasium in a city parochial high school, a private golf course, community ice rinks in Joliet and Oak Park, and Chicago's Soldier Field.

During December, 1968, ground was broken in an urban renewal area immediately south of the present campus for the construction of a $6,000,000 physical education building. The building should be completed by September, 1970.

In conclusion I would like to make two comments:

1) A full scale physical education program cannot be undertaken on a campus without a physical education building unless the physical education staff is comprised of people highly dedicated to the profession.
2) The yearly increase of construction costs, the cost of renovating buildings for physical education uses, the cost of renting off-campus facilities, and the cost of transporting students to off-campus facilities, could provide a convincing argument in favor of including the construction of a physical education building in the first phase of the construction of a new campus.

COLLEGE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS CONDUCTED WITH LIMITED AND OFF CAMPUS FACILITIES

Institution: University of Illinois – CHICAGO CIRCLE, Chicago, Illinois
Enrollment: 14,000
Educational Programs: College of Art and Architecture
    College of Business Administration
    College of Education, School of Physical Education
    College of Engineering
    College of Liberal Arts and Sciences
Physical Education and Athletic Program:
    Faculty – 33 men
        23 women
    Basic Instruction (2 year requirement) – 3600 men
        2900 women
    Professional Curricula (B.S. degree) – 185 men
        115 women
    Intercollegiate Athletics – 14 sports
    Woman's Athletic Association – 180 participants in 10 sports
    Intramural Sports – Over 4,000 participants
Facilities:
    Campus –
        Chicago Circle Center (Student Union)
        Racine Avenue Building (Formerly a factory)

Roosevelt Road Building
(Formerly the Central National Bank)
Nine Tennis Courts
Seven Acres Field Space

USE (See Key below)	*OFF CAMPUS FACILITY*	*ACTIVITY*	*DISTANCE FROM CAMPUS*	*FEE*
a	Addams Park (Chicago Park District)	Baseball	1 mile	No Rental Fee
d	Gordon Technical High School	Basketball	5 miles	Rented
d	Grant Park (Chicago Park District)	Soccer	3 miles	No Rental Fee
d	Joliet Ice Rink, Joliet, Illinois	Ice Hockey	25 miles	Rented
d	Lincoln Park (Chicago Park District)	Baseball	5 miles	No Rental Fee
b	Montrose Beach (Chicago Park District)	Cross Country	10 miles	No Rental Fee
a	Old Town Boys Club	Basketball	¼ mile	Rented
b	Ridgeland Commons, Oak Park, Illinois	Ice Hockey	6 miles	Rented
d	Rockne Stadium (Chicago Board of Education)	Track	5 miles	No Rental Fee
d	Soldier Field (Chicago Park District)	Football	3 miles	Rented
c	Union Park (Chicago Park District)	Baseball	2 miles	No Rental Fee
b	White Pines Golf Club, Bensenville, Ill.	Golf	12 miles	Rented

Key

a — Used for instruction and varsity practice.
b — Used for varsity practice and competition.
c — Used for instruction, varsity practice, and competition.
d — Used for varsity competition only.

Do Films Help Students Learn Motor Skills? *

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The title of this paper may seem like a rhetorical question in that everyone knows the answer. It is, "Of course, they do." To support his answer, one possibly would ask several more questions, such as these: "Are not films used widely in other areas of education? Is it not a common practice for our teachers who are conscientious and well prepared to use both still and motion pictures as a part of their presentation? Do not coaches, who are considered by some to be our best teachers, make liberal use of films? Does not every textbook dealing with methods have a section devoted to motion pictures, slides, film strips and other types of instructional aids in which their use is urged?" The answer to these questions is, of course, in the affirmative, but is this enough evidence to satisfy *us*? It should not be, for we should ask, "What does our research show?"

The purpose of this paper is to answer this last question and, in so doing, to provide a better basis for answering the first question. The conclusions are based upon eight published and twenty-three unpublished studies on this subject. In spite of this number of investigations, it must be pointed out that the use of films has not been as thoroughly researched as is desirable. However, there is enough evidence to be of considerable help to anyone attempting to answer the question posed in the title of this paper.

The thirty-one studies which were examined dealt with the teaching of only those skills which are generally included in physical education programs. They involved different types of comparisons but all had at least one identical aspect: that one group was taught with the aid of films and another group was taught without them.

A simple tabulation of the results of the studies revealed that only ten of them supported the use of films. However, a closer examination of these ten studies shows that even they do not give strong support to the use of films. The results of five of them can be accepted only with considerable reservation. Adams[1] gives no objective data to support his conclusions; neither Ruffa[2] nor Priebe and Burton[3] tested their differences for significance; Tate's[4] test to measure the learning had very low reliability; and Hainfeld's[5] report is so vague that one cannot be at all confident about his conclusions. Three other reports ended with mixed findings. Both Gray and Brumbach[6] and Lockhart[7] found that the films seemed to hasten the learning of their subjects in that midway through the experimental period there was a significant difference between the two groups. However, this difference disappeared by the end of the study period. Rockwood[8] studied a coed class and found that while the women profited from the films, the men in his study did not. This leaves only two studies which one can cite to support the overall effectiveness of films and they are quite different in several respects. Bartruff[9] found that a group of seventh-grade boys who were considered beginners in gymnastics profited from viewing slow-motion pictures of expert gymnasts. Watkins[10] found that skilled college baseball players were helped by seeing slow-motion pictures of themselves. Thus, the case for the use of films seems rather weak.

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*A bibliography is available from the author upon request.

[1] Thurston Adams, *Motion Pictures in Physical Education*, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939).

[2] Ruffa, Edward, "How Motion Pictures Help the Coach," *Athletic Journal*, 17 (May, 1937), pp. 20-23.

[3] Roy E. Priebe and William H. Burton, "The Slow-Motion Picture as A Coaching Device," *School Review*, 47 (March, 1939), pp. 192-198.

[4] Marjorie B. Tate, "The Comparison of Two Teaching Methods on Learning the Mechanics of Selected Body Movements." (Microfilmed Doctoral Dissertation, University of Iowa, 1956).

Supporting a negative answer to the original question, one finds twenty-one studies which give evidence that the use of films does *not* help students learn motor skills. Thus it appears that perhaps the question is not a rhetorical one at all. Perhaps this is another one of those instances, which seem to happen all too frequently in education, where we have been assuming we knew the answer because of what "experts" have told us or of what our logic has inferred.

Before we leave this subject, however, let us examine it further. Perhaps there is more to this matter than can be revealed by a simple totaling of the outcomes of all of the studies. An inspection of the dates of the studies is the first step. It was thought that perhaps they might be related to the outcome of the studies. Seven of the studies were done prior to 1950 and, of these, five indicated that the films helped the subjects. Twelve were completed between 1950 and 1960 and, of these, only two reported beneficial results. Twelve were also reported from 1960 to the present. Three of these found the films helpful. This analysis indicated that students of two decades ago found films of greater benefit than those using them in more recent years.

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[5] Harold Hainfeld, "Slow-Motion Movies for Swimming Coaches," *Scholastic Coach,* 29 (January, 1960), p. 48.

[6] Charles A. Gray and Wayne B. Brumbach, "The Effect of Daylight Projection of Film Loops on Learning in Badminton," *Research Quarterly,* 38 (December, 1967), pp. 562-569.

[7] Jeanne Aileene Lockhart, "The Value of the Motion Picture as an Instructional Device in Learning a Motor Skill." (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1942).

[8] Linn R. Rockwood, "An Experimental Study on the Use of Instructional Films in Teaching Tennis." (Unpublished Master's Thesis, Brigham Young University, 1952).

[9] Harry L. Bartruff, "The Use of Slow-Motion Pictures in Teaching Tumbling." (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Southern California, 1938).

[10] David L. Watkins, "Motion Pictures as an Aid in Correcting Baseball Batting Faults," *Research Quarterly,* 34 (May, 1963), pp. 228-233.

The second variable is that of the age of the subjects. Of the thirty-one studies; twenty-three used college students; four involved subjects in high school; three had them from junior high school; and one did not state the age, but the term "youngsters" was used so they probably were younger than high school students. While only six of the twenty-three studies involving college-age students claimed to find films beneficial, four of the eight dealing with younger students found them to be so. This makes it appear that younger subjects are helped more by this type of instructional aid than those in colleges.

Another variable to be examined is that of sex. Fifteen of the investigations had male subjects, twelve had females, three involved both sexes, and one report did not give this information. Six of the fifteen studies with male subjects stated that the films were of value while only two of the twelve involving women found the films helpful. One of the studies with coed subjects found that the women benefited from the films but the men did not,[11] but the other two reports indicated there was no difference in this respect. These results seem to point out that films are not especially valuable to either sex, but if there is a difference between the sexes, men react more favorably to them than do women.

Another variable is that of the stage of learning of the subjects. An examination of this aspect of the studies reveals a decided lack of balance, for only one of them dealt with what we would consider advanced or experienced subjects. It found that the films significantly improved the performances of these subjects.[12] Two reports failed to clarify the skill level of the students. The remainder of the studies dealt with students at the beginning level and the results indicate that not many of them benefited from the films. While one should not generalize from only one investigation, no matter how well it is done, it is possible that films are of more value to students beyond the beginner stage.

A fifth variable was the sport or activity being taught. Here we find considerable variety, with tennis and tumbling being used in five investigations, golf in four, badminton and track and field activities in three, and bowling and volleyball in two. Investigations were made of eleven other sport skills such as archery, basketball and wrestling, or activities such as modern dance and body movement. (This amounts to a total greater than thirty-one, but one of the studies[13] involved five different sport skills.) An examination of the results according to the skill being taught does not yield any clear-cut conclusions in that the apparent successful use of films was found in ten studies which involved eight different skills. Only tennis and track and field had two investigations supporting their use and for both of these skills, there were other studies which reported a lack of success. Thus it appears that films do not aid any particular activity or type of skill which is commonly taught in a physical education program.

Another variable which was examined was the type of film used. The majority of the work (twenty-two studies) dealt with the use of what will be termed "regular" motion pictures in that they were on a reel which necessitated rewinding; fourteen of these used only this form, while eight used it in combination with other forms of films. The results indicated that eight of these studies found the films helpful, six when they were used alone and two when they were used in conjunction with another type. Ten investigators used loop films, seven using this aid by itself and three using it and "regular" movies. Three of these ten studies showed beneficial results, two of which used only loop films and one in which they were only a part of the aid. Four studies involved the use of film strips in conjunction with other types of films. One of these studies gave evidence of helping the students.[14] Slide films in addition to "regular" movies were used by three investigators but the results indicated there was no significant difference between the final performance of the two groups. An examination of these results does not reveal any definite conclusions to this investigator. It appears that there is no one type of film or combination of them that is more helpful, and that slides do not seem to be of any value.

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[11] Rockwood, *op. cit.*

[12] Watkins, *op. cit.*, pp. 228-233.

[13] Pearl Berlin, "Effects of Varied Teaching Emphasis During Early Learning on Acquisition of Selected Motor Skills." (Microcarded Doctoral Dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1959).

Still another variable was whether the films were used for demonstration or diagnostic purposes. Twenty of the investigators used films showing skilled performers demonstrating and, of these studies, only four indicated that this form of film might be of value. Seven studies involved only the use of diagnostic films in that the students saw only themselves projected on the screen. Two of these studies concluded that this method was helpful. A combination method was used by four of the investigators and three of these studies had findings suggesting that the films aided the students. One study had the students seeing an expert and several beginners as demonstrators and then seeing films of themselves, but this did not bring about a significantly better performance.[15] Another study involved the subjects seeing films of both an expert and what was termed an "average player," followed by diagnostic films. This is the study mentioned earlier in which the women appeared to benefit from this experience but the men did not.[16] From this analysis it would appear that neither solely viewing demonstration nor diagnostic films benefits students, but a combination of the two methods may be of value to them. There is not enough evidence upon which to base a conclusion regarding the skill level of the demonstrator.

The final variable to be examined in this study was the speed of the motion pictures. For the purpose of this report, the studies were divided into two categories – those which showed the films at normal speed (16 f.p.s.) and those which showed them so the action appeared slower. (This ranged from 24 to 128 f.p.s.) Ten of the reports did not give any information on this subject and one study did not involve motion pictures. Of the twenty remaining, one used films at normal speed only, ten used them at slower motion only, and nine used them at both speeds. The results appear to favor the combination showing in that six of those studies indicated favorable results for the film-aided group. Only three of the studies using only the slower motion films found them beneficial and the one using the films at normal speed only found no significant difference between the groups. Thus it seems that if one is to use films, he should use those which present the action at both normal and slow-motion speeds.

In summary, according to the research presently available, the answer to the question, "What does our research show?", is that films are of very little, if any, value to students who are attempting to learn a motor skill such as we teach in our physical education classes. This is the overall conclusion which is based upon a thorough review of thirty-one studies which attempted to evaluate the use of films in a class situation. However, a further examination of the studies yielded these additional conclusions:

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[14] Rockwood, *op. cit.*

[15] Howard S. Brown and Lloyd Messersmith, "An Experiment in Teaching Tumbling With and Without Motion Pictures," *Research Quarterly*, 19 (December, 1948), pp. 304-307.

[16] Rockwood, *op. cit.*

1) Films seem to be of less value to today's students than they were to students prior to 1950.
2) Students of college age do not appear to benefit from film-aided instruction, while younger students may find it helpful.
3) There appears to be little difference between the sexes in their reaction to films but perhaps men benefit slightly more than women.
4) Students at the beginning level of instruction seem to find films of little aid in their efforts to learn motor skills, but it may be that films are of more help to those at a more advanced level.
5) There is no one sport or group of activities that appears to be learned more easily with films than without them.
6) Apparently there is no more value in showing moving pictures as loop films than in non-loop form; nor is there any special value in various combinations of regular films, loop films, film strips and slide films.
7) If one wants to use films, it may be that the most beneficial method of using them is a combination of demonstration and diagnostic films.
8) Again, if films are to be used, students seem to profit from seeing their activities performed in both normal speed and in slower motion rather than seeing them only in one speed.

In conclusion, it must be made perfectly clear that the investigator does not consider this a closed issue. There is an obvious need for further, well-designed research projects in this area. Those appearing especially interesting are ones involving the use of the single-concept loop films and such new and still relatively expensive instruments as the Graph-Check sequence camera and video-tape instant replay. Since there is still so much that we do not know about motor learning, we must never stop trying to improve what we are doing, but we *must* keep ourselves up-to-date so we can provide the very best learning situation for our students.

Pros and Cons of Sports Clubs

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The history, philosophy and organization of sports clubs has been written about fairly extensively. Likewise a variety of surveys, published and unpublished, have been made in an effort to find what is the purpose of such clubs, how are they organized, what sports are involved, as well as a host of other details relating to this, old in one sense yet new in another, interest in sports participation. In fact this writer recently conducted a survey of seventy-eight (78) selected institutions, the questionnaire being designed to get ideas for this report as well as assistance in future policy decisions relative to sport club groups on his own campus.

What has brought about the growth of sports clubs? Do students really want more opportunities to participate than now exist in intramural and recreation programs? Have we overorganized intramural programs and made our major form of recreation competitive whereas there are large interest groups who want to further their particular interests on a less organized basis? Or, have intercollegiate sports become so highly organized and so restrictive due to athletic scholarship participation that there is need to consider providing a more sane type of competitive program for the less highly skilled unrecruited student athlete?

Rather than burden the reader with a long list of detailed facts, I have, after reviewing the literature and available surveys, selected some major problem areas as I see them and will make general observations about each.

WHAT SPORTS ARE INVOLVED

Some seventy-five (75) different sports have club status with the number in any single institution ranging from zero (0) to forty (40). The majority of the institutions have from three (3) to eight (8) clubs. Soccer and karate appear to enjoy the greatest popularity with sailing, skiing, judo, fencing, gymnastics and rugby not far behind. What one finds is a wide variety of sports interests among students; interests influenced no doubt by past experiences, geographical location of the institution, availability of facilities, availability of enough students with similar interest in forming a club, a fad of the times, or simply a desire to play and participate as a group with equally interested, skilled and socially acceptable individuals at a time suitable to those involved. This wide variety of interests and participation is not only encouraging but should be encouraged. Those of us responsible for sports programs gladly welcome more motor activity and less spectatoring. A word of caution would be that there is no reason to promote sports clubs at one institution because they exist at another; rather let them develop naturally.

SPONSORSHIP OF SPORT CLUBS

Aside from self sponsorship almost every type agency on the college campus seems to be involved. The most common practice is for some member of the physical education-intramural-athletic family to either initiate the club or take it under their wing after its initiation by students. Since the clubs are athletically oriented, need athletic facilities and equipment and usually seek help from people in our area it is probably administratively easier for them to be sponsored, if sponsorship is necessary, by our area rather than by some other campus agency.

With the present day trend for students to always want to be involved in running the establishment one wonders if this is not an area where students can be given a relatively free hand to organize and sponsor clubs which are relatively free from institutional direction and control. A partial answer relative to the feasibility or desirability of such practice may well depend upon the purpose of the club. For example, are these clubs a form of spontaneous student interest, are they being promoted for the purpose of trying to involve greater numbers of students in sports activity, or are they a new approach to interschool sports?

One may well ask why must they be sponsored at all? Why is it not possible for students to have sports clubs in a free and unfettered atmosphere – their existence restricted only by the need for them to fit within the framework of the institution with respect to facilities?

It is not infrequently the philosophy of some intramural-recreation directors to sponsor more and more activities in an attempt to create the impression of great numbers of participants in the program. Is it quantity, often of the one shot variety, we seek? or quality? or a combination of both?

In general there appears to be confusion between what is meant by sponsorship and approval of sports clubs. The former apparently means the promotion of the club, the latter, approval of their right to exist under a set of rules.

APPROVAL OF THE CLUB TO FUNCTION

This sometimes involves the previous issue in that clubs may exist without approval but with sponsorship and vice versa. One finds many patterns, from no approval to a highly complicated plan involving an elaborate constitution and by-laws and an imposing list of governing regulations. If the institution requires approval of any type campus organization, then sports clubs should adhere to such minimum requirements. Certainly a minimum of rules and regulations should suffice to permit the existence of this or any other voluntary interest group. We have enough highly complicated rules designed to control intercollegiate sports. It might be possible for the sports club area to provide some leadership toward a more sane and less complicated pattern of sports participation, particularly where interschool competition is involved. Surely there is no reason to have a cumbersome pattern involving rules and regulations and official interpretations of same to the extent that the unbridled interest of the student to play is reined in and destroyed. In essence – "let 'em play". Students interested in a sport may come to the gymnasium as a group and play day after day without any sponsorship or approval. In a sense they are a type of sports club which has long been in existence and will continue to be in existence without approval or sponsorship. As previously pointed out the purpose of the club may provide the answer regarding the type approval necessary for their existence.

FINANCING SPORTS CLUBS

One finds a wide variety of practices from no financing, to individual members paying dues, to partial or complete financing by some campus agency. The first question one may well ask is why is any financing necessary? If the institution approves the club and facilities and equipment are available, what other financing is necessary? Actually none if a time and place to participate is all the club membership wants. On the other hand the sport may be one for which there is no facility nor any equipment available, thus some budgeting problems exist. Also, as is frequently the case, the long range interest of the group is to engage in competition with off campus groups.

The general practice appears to be to find some financial means of helping sport clubs exist and attain their objectives. With reference to facilities and equipment, this is sound provided proper consideration has been given to the need for such facilities and equipment in relation to long range planning for expanding the total recreational opportunities for students and faculty. There would appear to be no justification in financing these clubs and not providing similar opportunities for students who have no interest in club membership but do have an interest in sports participation. A pitfall to avoid is trying to satisfy every interest group without taking time to evaluate their request for financial aid with respect to the possible continued interest in and need for the new club, as well as other administrative issues involved.

The question of competition with off campus groups poses many problems, a sizeable number involving more and more requests for financial assistance. If financing for this purpose is left entirely up to club members, then participation may depend, in part, upon the economic status of the student. Likewise, if a campus agency undertakes financial responsibility, much the same result occurs and at some point some clubs will either receive no help, or less or more help than others, depending upon the economic status of the financing agency.

It is true that intercollegiate programs have in some instances been expanded by sports clubs becoming so strong that they are accepted as new intercollegiate teams. The intercollegiate sports budget already strained by football and basketball costs now has a greater strain. The sports club cost may not actually disappear, but there may now be a request to start another sports club in the same sport for the less talented but equally interested who want eventually a means of off campus competition under a system of less severe rules and regulations.

One might elaborate indefinitely with specific illustrations of problems relating to financing sport clubs. It would appear that some clear definition is absolutely necessary of what purpose such clubs should and can serve if we are to intelligently make decisions relative to their existence and financial needs. Are they to be clubs whose major, if not only, purpose is to provide opportunity for those with like interests to participate free of organization and free of relatively restrictive rules in an institutional setting designed to provide recreational opportunities for its students, faculty and employees? Or, are they to be this plus a less highly organized intercollegiate athletic program in one sense, but ultimately as highly organized in another sense? Are we moving toward two types of intercollegiate programs, the one we now have plus a new type involving teams who are self coached, have no rules, nor do they want any, and who will ultimately demand what at the moment seems most important to their existence?

Financing sports clubs is one of the crucial issues in this new trend and cannot be easily resolved. In seeking an answer we might well learn from the experience of those in intercollegiate sports – without some sound thinking relative to purpose, without some definite direction, and most surely without some restraint upon individual desires to build a sports club empire, it is quite obvious that we will be faced with a host of perplexing problems in the very near future.

Despite arguments of those who may say it represents a sign of the times, I have always felt that the expenditure of large sums of money to buy participation in sports is an unsound practice. If we provide facilities and equipment of sufficient quantity and organize and administer the use of same to the best advantage of the greatest number, is not this sufficient and less expensive financing?

FACILITIES, EQUIPMENT, AND INSTRUCTION FOR SPORTS CLUBS

Since the same students are involved, only in a different setting, there would appear to be no reason to be concerned about facilities and equipment for this group beyond the already existing concern for all students. Certainly it would be a mistake for the institution to provide for these groups and not for others who wished to seek recreational opportunities as an individual and not as one of an organized group. Yet one finds various patterns in existence, from no provision for facilities and equipment to complete provision of same.

Provision for instruction ranges from none to full time, from members paying the cost of instruction to campus agencies sponsoring these clubs paying part or all of the cost. Any answer to this issue must depend in part upon policy relating to all clubs on campus as well as the availability of funds for such programs. Unless there is some uniformity of policy and practice we will forever be tossing about on a sea of uncertainty.

An interesting observation might be, why do students who oppose the required sports instruction program want and even seek instruction in sports clubs and are willing to pay additional money for same? Should consideration be given to reorganizing instructional programs on a sports club basis or is this too idealistic in one sense or too realistic in another, and, would it be administratively possible within the framework of an educational curriculum?

SPECIFIC RULES FOR MEMBERSHIP IN SPORTS CLUBS

One finds many suggestions and patterns in existence. Probably the most perplexing question relates to health clearance. Health standards governing eligibility for participation in intercollegiate and intramural sports are common practice in most institutions. Can or should such rules apply to sports clubs? Obviously they can; and possibly they should. On the other hand, no one is restricted from free unorganized participation on the basis of his health status. Is there a point at which the individual should be permitted to make his own decisions relative to health status and recreational participation in athletic activities? Is there a dividing line between institutional and individual legal liability for what one does or what type programs one participates in?

Beyond the solution, if possible, of the health issue, any rules of an institutional nature, other than being a bona fide student, seem unjustified. If the institution permits or promotes any activity, then any student should be privileged to participate in such activity in so far as so called general eligibility is concerned. There may, of course, be some specific rules indigenous to the group itself, but even they should be simple and not designed to clutter up the issue of who can and who cannot belong to the sport club.

Problems in this area seem to exist primarily where interschool competition is one of the purposes of the club. Even so, would it not be possible to use the "bona fide student" idea, thus eliminating the need for an elaborate set of rules for membership and participation such as presently exist in our intercollegiate programs?

PROBLEMS RELATIVE TO OFF CAMPUS INTERSCHOOL COMPETITION

These problems are all related to purpose, finance, facilities and similar questions. There are, however, a few specific issues which appear to present greater difficulty in answering.

A. Who pays cost of travel? Presently, individual members, the club from dues or appropriations, or some other agency pay the travel cost. Of concern is what is and should be involved: meals, travel, housing, contracts (guarantees), number of trips permitted, etc. A common practice is for the individual to happily pay such costs in order to get the program underway, then soon expect the institution to take over this cost. At present there is no pattern of practice relating to this question.

B. Eligibility rules. The range is from none to many relating to academic eligibility, previous experience, graduate or undergraduate, student or faculty. The bona fide student approach should cover this point, but rarely is this true. We seem to have a phobia for complicated rules of eligibility to participate in sports competition.

C. Who is legally responsible for what may happen during off campus travel? Answers indicate (1) no one, (2) the individual, or (3) the institution. Are clubs officially representing the institution or are they simply approved by the institution and function unofficially? To what extent is their legal responsibility? Does legal responsibility depend upon official approval, formal sponsorship, or mere existence of the club? This issue obviously needs thorough study before any answers will be forthcoming as a guide to policy and practice.

D. Do they travel as other athletic teams or are they free from any regulations? They do everything at present from no regulations to the same as athletic teams.

E. Must they have faculty representative? Yes and no — with many interpretations.

F. Are class absences granted for trips? Yes and no, often depending upon whether an approved or unapproved club.

G. Must trips be approved? Yes and no, with many interpretations.

H. Do they officially represent the institution? Yes and no — depending upon local regulations relating to the points discussed in the previous paragraphs.

What one finds in the above is no pattern of policy and practices but a lot of worrisome, perplexing problems about which we seem to be groping in the dark for answers. Basically we find ourselves attempting to answer these questions without any decision relative to the purpose of such organizations.

Most of the sub titles under this basic problem would not exist in situations involving sports clubs unless interschool competition was one of the purposes of the club. Therefore, if we answer one question we answer many. On the other hand, if these clubs are to be a new type of off campus competition group, then answers must be forthcoming. A sensible suggestion would be that we make no attempt to move in the direction of any NCAA of Sports Clubs, but, rather, that each institution answer these questions in line with institution policy and practice. Ask yourselves some questions. If the club pays travel costs on one campus and the institution pays on another campus, what difference does it make? If one institution has academic regulations must another have the same? Is it always necessary to live as and keep up with the Jones's? The only issue that is really universal in importance is that of the legal, real or moral, responsibility of institutions for such groups traveling off campus.

One issue immediately raised by athletic coaches is that we can't have a set of training rules for our present varsity teams and another for sports club teams. In essence, if the sports club basketball team smokes, drinks beer and has freedom, how can we control the varsity athlete? Time doesn't permit a real or philosophical discussion of this issue; however, changing times may provide some clues to an answer.

PRIORITY REGARDING USE OF FACILITIES

Everyone has a facility problem. One of the major issues in many institutions regarding facility priority is the conflict of ideas about who and when one should use a facility. Physical education, intramural and athletic personnel all too often think they 'own' a facility. Facilities belong to the institution and should be used at all times. Fields standing unused, glistening green, restricted to athletics, intramurals, men or women are an invitation to those looking for space for a new building or a parking lot. Football fields are plowed up in June to get them ready for September, but from Thanksgiving to June they can't be used for intramurals, la crosse or anything else for fear they might be torn up. The first decision needed for determining priority of facilities is an administrator with the courage to make decisions and not be swayed by the ridiculous whims of individuals. Once this is done, priority relative to men, women, instruction, intramurals, intercollegiate sports and recreation, as well as sports clubs, can be worked out. There must be adjustment of schedules, as well as sharing of use to the best advantage of all concerned. Someone is sure to be unhappy about a decision, but the fact remains that in so far as possible we have an obligation to provide, within reason, opportunity for all groups to share in the use of facilities, and to use facilities for all groups.

The more one observes the growth and promotion of highly organized intramural programs the more one wonders if we may not be creating facility problems. If sports clubs are by chance a reaction to such highly organized programs, we may well need to consider this fact in deciding what course to pursue in the promotion of such clubs. If both type programs are important but facilities are limited, we may need to limit each in order to keep things in balance.

THE PURPOSE OF SPORTS CLUBS OVER AND ABOVE INTRAMURAL SPORTS

A variety of answers to this question indicate in part some of the indecision relative to the purpose of such clubs as well as questions relating to problems created by their existence.

They serve the need for extramural experiences, are a halfway experience between intramural and intercollegiate athletics, involve sports not already in the program of intramurals, provide for special interest groups, serve as a way of starting a varsity sport, provide unorganized activity experiences, and meet the needs of the highly skilled who have an interest in a specific sport. This list might go on endlessly, but an analysis of many statements of purpose indicates that beyond the intramural program they appear to fall into three main areas: (1) provision of additional sports opportunities on an unorganized basis, (2) a new form of interschool competition for students who are not satisfied with intramural experiences yet do not wish to compete with recruited athletes or under a set of strict rules, and (3) a gateway to varsity status. In a sense there is nothing new in the sports club trend, rather, just a broadening of what we already have in one form or another. Thus, decisions relating to their purpose, and whether they should or should not exist are the same decisions we have long been making as our programs expanded. Within the limits of space, budget and staff, we are all obviously interested in the development of such programs. On the other hand, does the institution have a responsibility to try and satisfy every whim of students, or do we have a need to reorient our thinking from the traditional intramural-recreation concept to a new and broader concept of sports participation?

It is quite easy for the student (or those promoting sports clubs) to argue that this type organization is needed. Before we jump on the bandwagon we may well give some serious thought to all of the problems involved and to the questions: are the needs real? or, is this just a new fad?

In one sense these clubs do provide certain type opportunities and experiences not normally a part of intramural-recreation programs, particularly where interschool competition is concerned. On the other hand, they provide nothing new in that instruction is already available, recreational opportunities are unrestricted, intramural competition can, within limits, be expanded, and intercollegiate programs can have junior-varsity teams which would provide greater opportunity for more students to enjoy intercollegiate competition.

PROBLEMS CREATED BY THE PRESENCE OF SPORTS CLUBS

This question was included in my survey, and appears to exist in other reports, to try to find out just what seemed to be the stumbling blocks to such clubs. The major problems appear to be: (1) how can such clubs be financed, (2) lack of space into which they may be scheduled, (3) how to handle requests for interschool competition, (4) the degree to which they are upsetting present programs, and (5) who should be responsible for their approval and direction on campus. Actually these are in a sense not new problems, they are simply old problems in a new model. Their solution will rest upon evaluating and determining the purpose of the club. In what frame of reference can it exist on a given campus? Does it need financing? and, if so, how can it be financed within existing budgets? Is there space available for the club to perform within the present program of activities? No one answer will suffice; in fact, there may be no universal answer at all. In all probability each problem will have to be resolved on an institutional basis. One thing is obvious; if we go off in every direction simply to satisfy what appear to be student interests, we may well create more problems than we solve.

Consideration may be given to the previously mentioned point that no new problems exist, we simply have old ones in a new model; therefore, rather than actually having problems to contend with we may instead have new purposes, ideas and interests to consider. If this is true do we remain unchanging or do we borrow from the Ford Company TV commercial "Better Idea" concept and consider some new approaches to our whole concept of instruction, intramurals, recreation and intercollegiate sports?

THE ORIGINAL TOPIC – PROS AND CONS OF SPORTS CLUBS

No one is basically opposed to the idea of sports clubs with the main supporting reasons being more recreational opportunity, new sports participation opportunities not presently in existence on the campus, better opportunity to engage in sport of choice, serve minority groups, provide new competitive sports opportunities different from those presently available in intramural and intercollegiate programs and provide intercollegiate sports program on less highly organized basis. What is really being said is that we all encourage any type sports participation that the students show a real interest in, and which is administratively feasible.

But do we really believe or mean what we say when one considers the reasons opposing such clubs? They place a burden on the budget; there is no space for them; we already have sports opportunities; they can't be controlled; they fail unless someone keeps them organized and active; they represent only fleeting interests of students and are not permanent unless "mothered" by some department; they are not income producing if engaged in interschool competition, therefore they can't be afforded. Are we saying here, if we will be honest, that these clubs are fine but they are a nuisance? we already have enough problems without creating more? we are already doing a good job so why clutter up the program with more of the same?

I suspect that a previous observation may be in order; namely, that we may need to re-orient our thinking with respect to this whole area of intramurals, intercollegiate sports and free recreational opportunities. We can rightly assume that intercollegiate sports in some form are going to continue to exist. Will that form be football-basketball and all other sports, or a certain number of sports highly promoted and others less highly promoted, or two distinct levels, one highly organized, the other foot loose and fancy free as it were? Thus a real evaluation of the situation may provide some direction in seeking answers to questions which seem to be plaguing all of us relative to sports clubs.

An important issue facing us may well be just how far do we go in organizing and promoting intramural competition. For example, it is easy to schedule all facilities for intramural games and leave none for free unorganized programs. This might be one of the causes of the sudden interest in sports clubs. At the other end of the spectrum would be the sports club taking over the space at the expense of the intramural program. I can hear intramural directors screaming that such will never happen. Can you be sure the desire for unorganized competition will not be more challenging to students, if they are given the choice?

In one sense they are a fad, in another a serious desire of common sports interest groups to get together for play or competition. Under whatever guise or name, or for whatever purpose, they obviously represent an interest of people in sports participation. Therefore, we should intelligently cultivate this interest in so far as it represents expanded efforts to do what we are already trying to do within the limits of space, budget and sound practice.

To oppose the idea is to either fail to recognize the interest of students toward a possible change of emphasis of present programs in intramural, intercollegiate and recreational sports or lack of ability to cope with the problems. We should neither shy away from the issues nor should we be rushed into seeking solutions. For the most part we will ultimately handle each situation with reference to our personal philosophy, the potentials existing in the institution we work for and ideas gleaned from meetings and discussions with our colleagues. In closing may I observe that sports in some form were here long before you and I and will be here long after we depart. While we don't want to kill the goose that lays the golden egg, neither do we need, nor want, the tail to wag the dog.

GENERAL SUMMARY OF SPORTS CLUB SURVEY

1) List sports in which your institution has a Sports Club. The range was 0 – 38 with an average of 7. Soccer, karate, sailing, skiing (water & snow), judo, fencing, gymnastics and rugby were the most frequently mentioned sports.
2) Who sponsors the Sports Club? Eighteen (18) different campus agencies were mentioned.
3) Must the Club have approval of any official institutional agency? The majority must have some type of official approval.
4) How is the Club financed? The majority are financed by club members themselves.
5) Does the Club furnish its own equipment? The majority furnish their own equipment or get same from Physical Education Department.
6) Is instruction provided? Who pays the cost? The majority have instruction paid for by the Physical Education Department.
7) Are specific rules required for membership such as academic average, health clearance, other? About 50% do and 50% don't.
8) If Clubs engage in interschool competition:
   a. Who pays travel costs? Members pay in majority of instances.
   b. Are eligibility rules required? About 50% replied yes, and 50% no.
   c. Who assumes legal responsibility? Club members in majority of schools surveyed.
   d. Must they travel as athletic teams do or do they have freedom from regulations? Majority travel free of any regulations.
   e. Are they expected (required) to maintain same quality of conduct as athletic teams? Majority answered yes.
   f. Must they have a faculty representative? The majority answered yes.
   g. Are class absences granted for such trips? The majority answered no.

h. Must any institution agency approve trips? 50% replied yes, and 50% no.

i. Do they officially represent the institution? 50% replied yes, and 50% no.

9) What priority, if any, do Sports Clubs have regarding use of facilities as compared to instructional, intramurals, intercollegiate and recreational schedules. The majority answered none.

10) Are students permitted to substitute Sports Club participation for physical education credit? The majority answered no.

11) Do (or should) Sports Clubs have awards similar to athletic teams? If so, who finances? The majority said they should not have awards.

12) What purpose do these Clubs serve over and above intramural programs, problems faced relative to their existence on your campus, and your opinion of the pros and cons of Sports Clubs. Answers discussed in body of this report.

Pros and Cons of Sports Clubs

George W. Haniford
Purdue University

In presenting the pros and cons of sports clubs it is important that we first determine, for one another, exactly what we are discussing. When sports clubs are mentioned I immediately think of a group of student organizations that have been established to promote and develop the interests and skills of their members in particular sports activities. A most important concept is that a sports club is a student organization. It closely resembles, in its make-up and purpose, the early sports clubs that were developed toward the close of the nineteenth century. Its membership may be composed of all men, all women, both men and women, students only or a combination of students and staff. Normally only those individuals possessing very high interest and/or skill in a particular sports activity are members. Some sports clubs are organized for the primary purpose of engaging in extramural competition while others are more interested in the objectives of fellowship and sociability. The clubs that participate in extramurals may have teams composed of all men, all women or both men and women. Most of their competitive experiences are with representative teams from other clubs, colleges or universities.

Within the sports club's activity program the members have an unlimited number of opportunities to become directly involved in the administration and supervision of their activity. They collectively have the responsibility for: the writing of their constitution and by-laws, the determination of their membership requirements, the establishment of their dues schedule, the selection of their faculty advisor, the establishment of the duties of their officers, the selection of their coach, and the development and administration of their budget.

Traditionally, most student organizations have been responsible to the offices of the Dean of Men and Dean of Women. Today, on some college campuses these student organizations are no longer required to be registered and/or approved by a sponsoring department. However, in those institutions in which the requirement is still present the student organizations are normally registered with and have their constitutions on file with the Dean's Offices.

The involvement of the Intramural Director in the promotion, sponsorship, or supervision of the sports clubs on his campus will be determined either by his philosophy or by the responsibility that he has been delegated. He may assume responsibility for the sports clubs movement on his campus in his attempt to provide all of the students with the broadest kind of an intramural-recreation program. When the personnel of the Intramural Department becomes involved in the sponsorship or supervision of sports clubs it then becomes necessary to establish additional guidelines. With your permission, I will use the history of sports clubs in my own institution as an example.

For the past twenty-five years the personnel of the Men's Intramural Department has been actively engaged in providing all types of assistance to the student organizations that we have termed Intramural Sports Clubs. The clubs have been given professional guidance, facilities and financial support. All assistance was originally performed with no delegation of authority, but rather was an assumption of responsibility on an un-official basis. The clubs after registering with the Offices of the Dean of Men and Dean of Women reported directly to the Intramural Director. A high degree of cooperation existed between the two departments particularly in the establishment of the rules and regulations that have been used to govern the clubs extramural games and meets.

Early in 1960 the Vice President and Treasurer of the University questioned the expenditure of departmental funds for the support of the sports clubs. On August 18, 1960 at a meeting called by the President of the University and attended by the Vice President and Treasurer, the Vice President in charge of Student Services, the Director of Athletics and the Intramural Director an official University policy was established to govern the supervision of the sports clubs. The provisions of the policy are as follows:

1) The Clubs receiving financial support from the Intramural Department (Recreational Gymnasium funds – student fee income) will be known as Intramural Sports Clubs. They will, after having their constitutions approved by the Dean of Men's and Dean of Women's Offices, be under the direct supervision of the Intramural Director.
2) Intramural Sports Clubs will be required to have a staff member (full time or graduate student with staff appointment) accompany them on all of their out of town meets or tournaments.
3) A staff member desiring membership in an Intramural Sports Club must pay the Recreational Gymnasium Facilities Fee ($7.00 per semester). The faculty advisor of an Intramural Sports Club will not be required to pay the fee.
4) A graduate student desiring membership in an Intramural Sports Club must possess either a student passport that has been validated by the Bursar or the Recreational Gymnasium Management, or a Recreational Gymnasium Facilities Fee Card.
5) Within current budget allotment financial support to the Intramural Sports Clubs may include:
    a. Game supplies and equipment.
    b. Wages covering: games officials, supervision and instruction and maintenance and care of equipment.
    c. Maintenance and upkeep of sports clubs grounds and buildings.
    d. Travel – University automobiles to be driven by staff members. Travel assistance to be dependent upon budget approval.
    e. Transportation charges for capital items.

In a later meeting, the Vice President in charge of Student Services informed the Dean of Men and the Dean of Women of the new policy to be followed in supervising the Intramural Sports Clubs. The Dean of Men, upon being informed that all clubs receiving financial support from the Intramural Department would thereafter be known as Intramural Sports Clubs, stated that the policy gives the Intramural Director the opportunity to take under his sponsorship all of the student organizations. The Vice President answered that both philosophy and budget limitations would determine the number of clubs the Intramural Director could and would accept to become Intramural Sports Clubs.

Currently the student organizations desiring recognition as Intramural Sports Clubs must satisfy several requirements before their acceptance. They include:

1) Written constitutions approved by the Intramural Director and the Dean of Men's and Dean of Women's Office.
2) Submission and approval of a budget to the Intramural Director and the auditor of student organizations.
3) Selection of a faculty advisor.
4) A written indication of their desire to become an Intramural Sports Club.

Once accepted as intramural sports clubs they then are governed by the several rules and regulations established by the University and the Intramural Department.

The Intramural Director that has been assigned the responsibility and authority for the sponsorship and supervision of the sports club program is fortunate. Even after his responsibility has been determined he will have to solve the many problems that arise in the administration of the sports club program. They include: the determination of a policy to govern the acceptance of student organizations as sports clubs, financing, facilities, equipment, eligibility requirements, travel restrictions and the supervision and control of extramural competition.

In the determination of a policy that will govern the selection of organizations to become sports clubs responsible to the Intramural Department the following factors will affect the type of policy written: the funds budgeted for the financial support of sports clubs, the facilities available, the types of student organizations, the club's plans for extramurals and the philosophy of the Director. Not all sports clubs will desire to become affiliated with the Intramural Department and some that request affiliation will not meet the criteria established for acceptance as Intramural or Extramural Sports Clubs.

Many sports clubs require little financial assistance once they are organized and in operation. The initial expense comes from developing the facilities and in purchasing the necessary equipment. When allocations of departmental budgets are given to sports clubs early answers must be given to the following questions:

1) What type of financial support is to be given to each club?
2) Should an equal allocation of funds be made to each club?
3) Is the allocation to be made directly to the club or made within the bookkeeping system of the department?
4) Are the officers of each club to be given the opportunity to determine how their budget allocation is to be spent?
5) What controls are necessary over all monies spent by the club? (i.e. requirements for check signing, approval of budget and auditing requirements).
6) Is financial support to include reimbursement to extramural participants for their travel, lodging and meal expenses?

Some Directors believe that for extramural competition no direct subsidy from departmental budgets should be given to participants for their travel, lodging or meal expenses. They further feel that the members of the clubs should share in the financial support of their clubs through the payment of dues, fund raising projects and special assessments.

Most sports clubs participate extensively in extramurals and in some instances a sports club exists solely for the purpose of extramural competition. Some sports clubs have student coaches while others are coached by graduate assistants or full time staff members. The women's extramural teams are usually coached by volunteers from the professional staff of the Department of Physical Education for Women. It is generally considered to be the responsibility of each sports club to secure the services of their coach. As a rule most coaches are volunteers and their capabilities differ greatly.

Extramural schedules for sports clubs are usually set jointly by the officers of the individual clubs, faculty advisors, and the coaches. If the Intramural Director has been delegated the responsibility for the sponsorship and supervision of the sports clubs he then is the staff member that will approve the schedules and sign all game or meet contracts.

Travel and other specifications of sports clubs are often found to be governed by both the sponsoring department and student organization regulations. Thus the handling of forms for the scheduling of their functions and approval of trips involves the offices of the sponsoring Intramural Department, the Dean of Men and the Dean of Women. Specific policies and procedures that need to be established include:

1) The provision of a standard form for use in securing approval for sports clubs trips and off-campus functions.
2) The determination of responsibility for signing the trip request forms.
3) The establishment of requirements governing the accompaniment of students on their sports clubs trips to out-of-town meets or tournaments.

The standard form used in securing approval for sports clubs trips and off-campus functions should answer the questions of who, what, where, why and when and should also provide the following information: a list of the club members making the trip, signatures of the faculty advisor and club president, mode of travel, housing accommodations, date and time of departure and return, trip leader's name, name of staff member accompanying the students, signatures of the Intramural Director and the representatives from the Offices of the Dean of Men and Dean of Women. The signature of the Intramural Director indicates his approval of the activity from the standpoint of its being a legitimate activity within the sports club program. The signature from the Dean of Men and/or Dean of Women's Offices indicates approval from the standpoint of appropriateness and compliance with student organization regulations. Signatures should be secured in a recognized order of responsibility. One order recommended is first the President of the Club, followed by the Faculty Advisor, the Intramural Director and the personnel from the Dean's Offices. The Intramural Director should not approve an application unless it has been signed by both the President and Faculty Advisor of the Club and the Deans' Offices should not approve an application unless it has been signed by the Intramural Director.

At my institution the President of the University set the policy that is used to govern the accompaniment of students on their sports clubs trips to out-of-town meets or tournaments. He has ruled that all Intramural Sports Clubs must meet the minimum requirement of a staff member (full time or graduate student with staff appointment) accompanying them on all of their out-of-town trips, meets, tournaments or extramural matches. We currently have the following categories of sports clubs trips, meets and/or tournaments:

1) One day trips on weekends. This category of trip may include both men and women; however, the participants return to campus on the same day of departure and by the established hours for freshman women.
   Requirement: One staff member

2) A trip involving only men for a maximum duration of two days and two nights on a weekend.

   Requirement: One staff member

3) Trips involving both men and women for a maximum duration of two days and two nights on a weekend.

   Requirement: One man and one woman chaperone. Both must be staff members.

4) Trips involving the absence of students from classes.

   Requirements: If only men involved one staff member required. If women are involved one man and one woman chaperone required.

5) Outing Club trips of any duration involving activities other than camping, caving, climbing, and hiking.

   Requirement: For each trip, requirement to be established by the Director of Intramural Athletics and the Offices of Dean of Men and Dean of Women.

In the processing of their forms for travel the club first secures approval from the Intramural Director and then the forms are presented to the Deans' Offices for their information. A trip that involves the departure or return of a woman student outside of the established hours for women is required to have the additional approval of the Office of the Dean of Women. Also, a trip that involves the absence of students from classes must have the additional approval of the Offices of the Dean of Men and Dean of Women. With the consent of the Intramural Director the different sports clubs may establish an approved list of chaperones with the Offices of the Dean of Men and Dean of Women.

The establishment of a policy to follow in ruling on the travel requests of the different sports clubs is but one of the first administrative steps necessary. Other guidelines and policies have to be determined. For example, the Director will have to decide if, for effective supervision, there is a need for requiring the clubs to use additional forms, such as: membership cards and lists, student and/or parental release forms, officers lists, application forms for home meets, social functions, listing of club functions on university calendar, swim test cards and physical examination records.

In addition, in the following administrative areas, it is imperative that the Intramural Director secure official answers to the questions given as they relate to the rules and regulations of his university.

1) *The utilization of University Transportation Service vehicles for the travel of sports clubs.* If permitted, must the driver of the vehicles be a staff member? Is there a limitation on the number of vehicles that a sports club may take to the same destination? Is there a limitation, other than availability, on the number of automobiles that sports clubs may use the same day or the same weekend? May the Transportation Service busses be used for sports clubs travel? May Departmental trucks be used to transport equipment belonging to sports clubs? May the sponsoring Intramural Department secure the automobiles from Transportation Service and then bill the sports clubs through the appropriate office?

2) *The utilization of privately owned automobiles for the travel of sports clubs.* When students are traveling as members of a sports club in a privately owned automobile are they covered by the University General Public Liability policy? If not, are they covered by the Uninsured motorist aspect of the University policy? If no coverage is present can they be covered by an endorsement to the University policy? Does the University policy provide bodily injury coverage for the club members traveling in privately owned automobiles? Is there a University recommendation or requirement that personal automobiles used for sports club travel be protected with minimum insurance limits?

3) *Liability insurance.* Does the General Liability Policy of the University cover the Intramural Director, the officers and members of the sports clubs while they are acting within the scope of their duties? Are the limits of the policy stated?

4) *Duties and responsibilities of the sports clubs officers and members.* Is there a requirement that the duties and responsibilities of the sports clubs officers and members be defined in writing?

5) *Property insurance.* Is the University responsible for the provision of insurance coverage for sports clubs property and equipment? Who owns the property used by the sports clubs – i.e. boat houses for Crew?

6) *Medical and first aid services and supervision.* Is the University responsible for the provision of medical treatment at the Student Health Center for injuries resulting from sports club practices and contests? Is the institution financially responsible for injuries resulting from sports club practices and contests? Is the University responsible for the provision of medical and/or first aid supervision at all practice sessions and contests of the sport clubs involved in contact sports?

The determination of official answers to the above questions will serve as a guide for the development of specific policies governing eligibility, scholastic requirements, awards, organizational structure, use of facilities and health and safety. These policies should not necessarily be patterned after any other program, but rather should be established to meet the specific peculiarities of the college or university and the needs of its students.

The modern sports club movement is not going to disappear. The interest in and demand of our students for this type of experience is going to increase. College students have come to realize that their physical, mental and emotional needs can not be adequately met in a stereotyped intramural sports program. They have become more demanding in their requests for program offerings – they have come to expect quality and within their intramural-recreational activity program they want included the special interest groups that we commonly term – sports clubs. If your philosphy incorporates the concept that all students must be provided opportunities to enjoy satisfying recreational experiences which are related to their particular needs you then have been or soon will be involved in your campus sports club program.

Pros and Cons of Sports Clubs

Taylor Dodson
Wake Forest University

Sports Clubs probably existed prior to our present organized intercollegiate and intramural sports programs. They likely will continue to exist in one form or another.

PURPOSES

1) To facilitate corecreational participation.
2) To meet special interest needs – Photography, synchronized swimming, dance, outdoor education, hiking, sailing, exploring, scuba, karate, judo, fencing.

3) To expand the traditional competitive intramural offerings.

4) To facilitate competition in areas not covered in the intercollegiate program – These include some listed in the above as well as soccer, lacrosse, squash, weight lifting, winter sports.

5) To reach a segment of the student body not reached by the traditional intramural program.

PROBLEMS

1) Organization of the program – officers, constitutions, coaches, managers.

2) Administration of the program – Dean's office, Athletics, Physical Education, Intramurals, College Union, Faculty Committees, Students.

3) Scheduling and Competition – travel, equipment, uniforms, officials, food, housing, legal liability, eligibility, record keeping, hiring and firing of coaches, salaries of coaches, scheduling of games, scheduling of practice, equipment and facilities for practice and games, medical help, insurance, injuries, trainers, and financial responsibility.

REQUIREMENTS FOR CLUBS

1) Written constitution.

2) Elected officers.

3) Faculty sponsor or advisor.

4) Adequately established and responsible financial accountability.

5) Calendar of events.

6) Adequate and appropriate means of meeting equipment and facility needs.

7) Established and recognized means of maintaining club continuity.

RESPONSIBILITY OF INTRAMURALS

1) Stimulate the growth of desirable activity through all means, including formulation of clubs.

2) Support existing clubs to the extent possible through equipment, supplies, facilities and budget.

3) Encourage club personnel to promote activity through regular and special events.

4) Cooperate with all institution structures such as Dean's office, College Union, Athletic office, student groups, faculty committees, and clubs themselves.

The demand for and interest to sustain a significant number of clubs probably exists in larger universities and colleges to a greater degree than in smaller schools. There does seem to be a need and a place for some sports clubs and non-sports clubs in all our institutions of higher education. These may come under any one or several of the administrative arms mentioned previously.

Sport and Personality Dynamics

Burris F. Husman
University of Maryland

Over the past quarter of a century physical educators have increasingly turned their attention toward the personality dynamics of sports participation. The original impetus for research in this area undoubtedly was caused by man's inability to adjust to the complexities of life or by physical educators seeking to justify their existence in the academic world.

From the beginning, psychologists, physical educators, and others attempting to complete meaningful research in this area have encountered innumerable problems.

First, there is no classic definition of personality that is universally accepted by psychologists and psychiatrists. The Psychiatric Dictionary has this to say about personality:

> "Among psychiatrists the term personality is used almost in its literal sense, of the mask worn on the stage by actors in ancient Rome. The personality is like a mask in the sense that it is made up of patterns of behavior through which the individual expresses his inner interests . . .
>
> "Psychiatrists agree in general with the foregoing definition as to what constitutes the personality. Disagreement arises over the dynamic forces that operate to produce the elements of personality. Psychoanalysts believe that personality is largely the resultant of the interaction of the instincts and the environment."[1]

Healy, Bronner, and Bowers describe personality as "The habitual patterns of behavior in the individual in terms of physical and mental activities and attitudes, particularly as these have social connotations."[2] This latter description infers that behavior manifests itself in terms of *physical* and mental as related to social adjustment. The inclusion of physical in this definition obviously has implications for physical educators. It at least implies that personality encompasses more than the mind, but that it includes the total functioning organism as a determinant of behavior. It is, therefore, believed that more and more mental health experts, psychologists, psychiatrists, and even psychoanalysts are beginning to look at the physical (i.e. the body) as one of the determinants of behavior.

From these few selected definitions, it is readily apparent that although there is some basic agreement on what is personality, there are almost as many definitions as there are theories of personality. Personality, then has flexible meanings. We do not know how it is formed, how it works, what constitutes its components, or the relationship of these components. This dilemma has caused Gardner Murphy to write:

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[1] Leland Hinsie and Robert Campbell, *Psychiatric Dictionary,* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1960), p. 543.

[2] W. Healy, A.F. Bronner, and A.M. Bowers, *The Structure and Meaning of Psychoanalysis,* (New York: Knopf, 1930), p. 265.

> . . . "there is no danger that anyone will succeed in this century in getting the perspective completely right or, indeed defining clearly what personality is."[3]

Second, since we cannot agree or do not really know what personality is, how do we establish scientific instruments for assessing something we do not fully understand. Psychologists have developed instruments assessing what they believe to be the facets of personality. Most of these tests have been designed to measure or sample behavior of the individual. Psychological tests have been classified into two major categories, namely paper and pencil tests and projective tests.

Paper and pencil tests usually have the subject respond to statements which characterize or describe his behavior. Types of paper and pencil tests are identified by their design, such as personality inventories, rating scales, biographical information sheets, and so forth. Personality inventories were originally designed for screening purposes during time of war. They were also used for diagnostic purposes, where they have not proven too successful. Psychoneurotic inventories have used rating scales for diagnosing the behavior of mental patients while other tests, by means of factor analysis, have attempted to identify the make up of personality. Some examples of the commonly used paper and pencil tests in physical education research are: The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, The SRA Youth Inventory, The Guilford-Martin Personality Inventory, Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, The California Test of Personality, The California Psychological Inventory, The IPAT Neurotic Personality Factor Test, and Taylor's Manifest Anxiety Scale.

Projective tests have been designed to assess the unconscious motives for behavior. Based upon Freud's concept that the majority of our behavior stems from unconscious drives and motives, these tests consist of presenting the subject with an unstructured stimulus to which he usually responds with the first word or phrase which comes into his mind. In projective tests the subject purports to identify himself with some person or object in the test and projects his behavior in relation to the stimuli presented. The major advantage of this type of test, as compared to the paper and pencil tests, is that here, the subject is caught off guard and may reveal information about himself which he does not want to reveal or does not know. In the paper and pencil tests it is relatively easy for the subject to describe his behavior in a manner desired by the examiner or society. Theoretically, paper and pencil and projective tests tap conscious and unconscious aspects of personality respectively, therefore, we would not expect the behavior measured by these two types of instruments to be alike. This has made the results of personality research in physical education controversial and difficult to interpret. Examples of projective tests frequently used in physical education research are: The Rorschach Inkblot Test, The Thematic Apperception Test, Buck's House-Tree-Person Test, The Sentence Completion Test, Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study, Word-Association Tests, The Body Cathexsis Test, and The Body Rating Scale.

Validation of personality tests has proceeded along several lines. A common procedure is to compare patients to normals or different categories of patients to normals, or to see if the tests will distinguish between pre- and post therapy patients. Another technique is to construct the tests to meet set criteria that describe the subject (construct validity). The most successful of these methods has been the comparing of normal and psychotic individuals. Most of the above mentioned tests, therefore, will distinguish the mentally ill from the normal population or place the mentally ill into different categories. There exists one obvious problem here, namely, what is "normal?" Zubin[4] has suggested that perhaps psychologists should utilize Kinsey's method and develop controlled interviews of a sample of the population to determine what constitutes normal behavior.

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[3] Gardner Murphy, *Personality: A Biosocial Approach to Origins and Structure,* (New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1947), 999 p.

For research purposes an attempt has been made to develop various techniques of quantifying behavior. A specific test may separate a schizophrenic person from a normal individual if the test results are carefully evaluated diagnostically, but difficulty is encountered when these test scores are quantified. On this subject Zubin concluded:

> "The final judgment that the scientist must . . . arrive at is that no objective evaluation can now be made of personality tests because they have not yet attained the status of tests yielding specifically designed scores. As techniques for aiding in clinical judgment, they have proved their worth. As independent tests they are found wanting." . . .
>
> "The reason for their failing is that no two responses are ever sufficiently identical to be classified as equivalent."[5]

The traditional techniques of test-retest and split-halves have been used to check the reliability of personality tests. As one would expect reliabilities reported are frequently low, since personality is dynamic and ever changing. The problems of psychological assessment were clearly summarized by Morgan in a paper presented at the National Convention of the AAHPER last year when he said:

> "Whether we hope to assess the effect of exercise on the cognitive behavior of mentally retarded youth, the behavior of psychiatric patients, or the personality dynamics of normal man, we must first obtain valid, reliable, and objective measures."[6]

Thus, one must be cognizant of the type of instrument used in attempting to evaluate and interpret the results of a large number of research studies completed on personality and sport participation. An evaluation must also be made of the characteristics of the subjects and the design of the research. For example, a large number of studies have been completed in an attempt to determine whether:

1) the personalities of various sports participants are different, i.e. is a golfer's personality different than that of a wrestler, or is the personality of a team sport participant different than that of an individual sport participant.
2) there is a relationship between personality traits and various levels of motor ability or physical fitness and

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[4] Joseph Zubin, "Objective to Evaluation of Personality Tests," *American Journal of Psychiatry,* (February, 1951), 107:571-576.

[5] *Ibid.*

[6] William P. Morgan, "Psychological Considerations," *Journal of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation,* (November-December, 1968), 39:9-26.

3) the personalities of different levels of performers vary. For example, is the personality of a non-athlete different than that of an athlete or does the champion exhibit different personality traits than a non-champion.

Many of the research studies comparing the personality traits of various sport groups have resulted in conflicting evidence which, as previously mentioned, is undoubtedly due to instrumentation and methodological inaccuracies.

Slusher[7], Lakie[8], Gold[9], Kroll & Carlson[10], Parsons[11], Fulton[12], Sperling[13], Henry[14], Bosco[15], and Flanagan[16], to mention a few, have completed research on the personality traits of a variety of sport participants, including combative, team, and individual sports. The results of these studies, are, for the most part, contradictory and inconclusive. However, when one compares the results of some of these studies, with work done by Ogilivie[17,18,19,20] and Kane [21,22], perhaps it could be concluded, in a general sense, that team sport participants are more extroverted and sociable than individual sport participants. (This will be discussed later when we look at the extensive research of Ogilivie and Kane).

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[7] Howard S. Slusher, "Personality and Intelligence Characteristics of Selected High School Athletes and Non-Athletes," *The Research Quarterly,* (December, 1964), 35:539-545.

[8] William L. Lakie, "Personality Characteristics of Certain Groups of Intercollegiate Athletes," *The Research Quarterly,* (December, 1962), 33:566-573.

[9] Marvin Gold, "A Comparison of Personality Characteristics of Professional and College Varsity Tennis and Golf Players as Measured by the Guilford-Martin Personality Inventory." (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, 1955).

[10] Walter Kroll and B. Robert Carlson, "Discriminant Function and Hierarchial Grouping Analysis of Karate Participants' Personality Profiles," *The Research Quarterly,* (October, 1967), 38:405-411.

[11] David Parsons, "Personality Traits of National Representative Swimmers." (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada, 1962).

[12] James B. Fulton, "The Relationship Between Selected Personality Traits and Participation in Different Forms of Athletics and Gymnastics." (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Iowa, Iowa City, 1948), 73 pp.

[13] Abraham P. Sperling, "The Relationship Between Personality Adjustment and Achievement in Physical Activities," *The Research Quarterly,* (October, 1942), 13:351-306.

[14] Franklin Henry, "Personality Differences in Athletes and Physical Education and Aviation Students," *Psychological Bulletin,* (October, 1941), 38:745.

[15] James Salvatore Bosco, "The Physical and Personality Characteristics of Champion Male Gymnasts." (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, 1962).

[16] Lance Flanagan, "A Study of Some Personality Traits of Different Physical Activity Groups," *The Research Quarterly,* (October, 1951), 22:312-323.

Research attempting to compare personality traits and levels of motor ability and physical fitness has only tended to further confuse the issue. As physical educators, we are all aware of the problems involved in identifying and measuring the components of motor ability and physical fitness. In fact, most evidence indicates that these components are specific to various sport activities and thus cannot be measured in general terms. Results of research by Ferguson [23], Merriman [24], Keough[25], Biddulph[26] and many others offers very little conclusive evidence concerning the problem under discussion.

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[17] Bruce D. Ogilivie and Thomas Tutko, "The Unconscious Fear of Success," *QUEST,* (X), (May, 1968).

[18] Bruce Ogilivie, Thomas Tutko, and I. Young, "Comparison of Medalists, Non-Medalists, Olympic Swimmers," *American Journal of Sports Medicine,* (1966).

[19] Bruce Ogilivie and Thomas Tutko, "The Psychological Profile of Champions," *Proceedings of First International Congress of Sports Psychology.* (Rome: Ed. Ferruccio Antonelli, 1965), pp. 201-203.

[20] Bruce C. Ogilivie, "The Personality of the Male Athlete," *Academy Papers,* No. 1, (The American Academy of Physical Education, 1968), pp. 45-51.

[21] J.E. Kane, "The Description of Sport Types Using the 16PF," *Research In Physical* Education, (London, England), 23:391-396.

[22] J.E. Kane, "Personality and Physical Abilities." (Paper presented at the 2nd International Congress of Sport Psychology, Washington, D.C., November 1, 1968).

[23] Beth Allen Ferguson, "Personality Differences Between Adolescent Girls of High and Low Motor Performance." (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Colorado, Boulder, 1963).

[24] J. Burton Merriman, "Relationship of Personality Traits to Motor Ability," *The Research Quarterly,* (May, 1960), 31:163-173.

[25] Jack Keough, "Relationship of Motor Ability and Athletic Participation in Certain Standardized Personality Measures," *The Research Quarterly,* (December, 1959), 30:438-445.

[26] Lowell G. Biddulph, "Athletic Achievement and the Personal and Social Adjustment of High School Boys," *The Research Quarterly,* (March, 1954), 25:1-7.

An analysis of some earlier work completed by my colleague Warren Johnson and more recent research by Ogilivie [27,28], Kane[29] and others [30,31] has isolated several characteristics of champion athletes.

Johnson, Hutton and Johnson [32] using two projective techniques, namely the Rorschach and House-Tree-Person Test, to study champion wrestlers found the champion to possess:

1) Extreme aggression
2) Uncontrolled affect meaning emotions lacking strict controls
3) High and generalized anxiety
4) High level of intellectual aspiration
5) Exceptional feelings of self assurance

Ogilivie [33,34,35,36], et. al, using for the most part, Cattell's 16 PF to assess personality characteristics of professional and college football and basketball players; age group swimmers, including Olympic performers; a variety of track and field athletes, and a group of 215 novice, amateur and professional sport car racing drivers, concluded: "If we become extremely selective and restrict our comments to those male athletes who have genuinely excelled either as amateurs or professionals some reliable general statements are possible."[37]

1) Most successful athletes were found to be rather extroverted. (Exceptions were race drivers, male tennis players, and long distance runners)
2) Top athletes had a greater achievement need, dominance need, and a higher need for aggression.
3) There was a tendency for greater abstract reasoning ability for those athletes who have excelled.

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[27] Ogilivie, Tutko, and Young, *op. cit.*

[28] Ogilivie and Tutko, *op. cit.,* pp. 201-203.

[29] Kane, *op. cit.,* pp. 391-396.

[30] Kroll and Carlson, *op. cit.,* 405-411.

[31] Parsons, *op. cit.*

[32] Warren R. Johnson, Daniel C. Hutton, and Granville B. Johnson, Jr., "Personality Traits of Some Champion Athletes and Measured by Two Projective Tests: Rorschach and H-T-P," *The Research Quarterly,* (December, 1954), 25:484-485.

[33] Ogilivie, Tutko, and Young, *op. cit.*

[34] Ogilivie, and Tutko, *op. cit.,* pp. 201-203.

[35] Ogilivie, *op. cit.,* pp. 45-51.

[36] K.W. Johnsgard and Bruce Ogilivie, "The Competitive Racing Driver," *The Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness,* (June, 1968), 8:2:87-95.

[37] Ogilivie, *op. cit.*

4) Top competitors tended to be more venturesome, bold, tough-minded, and also more self-assured and self-sufficient.
5) Low anxiety was matched with an unusual capacity to handle emotions under high stress conditions.
6) High leadership and an above average need for independence were very characteristic of these top male athletes.

Kane [38], in order to assess the personality traits of what was described as the top 100 English football players factor analyzed the results of Cattell's 16 PF. He isolated six factors, which are described below:

1) Personal integration – described as high control of emotion and persistence.
2) Extraversion.
3) Tough mindedness – related to heavy coaching or realistic aggression.
4) Radicalism.
5) General abstract ability.
6) Ruthlessness, with high loadings on conscience.

Kane [39], reading a paper at the recent 2nd Symposium of Sport Psychology in Washington, D.C. said:

> "Unfortunately, in spite of a number of tentative studies using a confusing array of methods and procedures the nature and extent of the relationship is not clear. Useful detailed reviews of the current state of knowledge are available which tend in general to support the notion that athletic ability goes with such personality dimensions as 'aggression', 'dominance', 'drive', 'tough-mindedness' and others associated with the outgoing sociable behaviour of the extrovert. Confidence, lack of anxiety, and emotional stability are another set of traits which have often been found among high level athletes. It must be said however that conflicting results and conclusions are to be found in the literature, though many of those are undoubtedly due to conceptual and methodological inaccuracies. Nevertheless, at a recent conference in Manchester, England, Professor Warburton felt that the following hypotheses were not unrealistic on the basis of current researches:
>
> 1) Outstanding athletic ability is associated with the personality factors supporting stable extraversion.
> 2) Successful participants in *team* and *individual* sports are associated with different personality type structure.
> 3) Women athletes in general exhibit less personality variance than men.
>
> These hypotheses although useful as a starting point for personality descriptions of athletes may only be accepted as grave generalizations as there appear to be important exceptions according to the particular sport and the level of competition under consideration.
>
> A few examples may help to illustrate this point:
>
> 1) Although in general extraversion goes with physical ability many top 'individual' athletes (i.e. track and field, swimming, tennis, etc.) are found *not* to be markedly extroverted and many world class performers are clearly introverts (Warburton & Kane 1967). It might be that a system of

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[38] Kane, "The Description of Sport Types . . ."

[39] Kane, "Personality and Physical Abilities".

> discrimination on personality grounds begins to operate as the higher levels of the physical ability pyramid are reached. Where individuals must, in the last analysis, go forward on their own to success it may well be that introverts are temperamentally more suited than the extrovert.
>
> 2) Although one can apparently point to personality differences in those who make up successful teams, for example in soccer, a recent study has shown that the variation is not great and that it may be possible to describe a soccer 'type' (Kane 1967). On certain fundamental personality dimensions, players in successful teams would tend, according to this suggestion, to be quite similar. A 'personality type' describing track and field athletes as a group, would on the other hand, be completely impossible. The range of skills and abilities involved and their peculiar physical and tempermental demands would make a 'within event' analysis essential. While for the explosive events the brash outgoing extroverted individual would seem to be ideally suited, it appears that shrewd, calculating, self analytical, types tending towards introversion are more likely to be successful at middle distance running."[40]

Apparently, there is some basic agreement as to the personality traits of some athletic groups, particularly champion athletes. Johnson, Hutton, and Johnson; Ogilivie; and Kane agree that in general champions

1) are or have the need to be more aggressive,
2) in team sports are more extroverted,
3) have exceptional feelings of self-assurance, and
4) have greater abstract reasoning ability.

There is considerable disagreement over the level of anxiety and the ability of champions to control their emotions. Of course, it should be remembered that Johnson used projective tests, while Ogilivie and Kane used Cattell's 16 PF, a paper and pencil test. Thus, it is possible that they assessed different levels of personality. It should also be noted that some champions are introverted. This point will be discussed later.

I would now like to turn to the item on which there is considerable agreement, namely number one above, aggression.

It was decided to treat this aspect of personality separately since it has so many implications for life in today's world. An understanding of aggression may assist the physical educator in directing the expression of an individual's aggression into constructive channels.

To write about aggression is a difficult, if not an impossible task. Aggression is a word everyone uses, but it has different meanings to different people. Without some aggression we would have no desire to accomplish tasks which would improve man or the understanding of man. Likewise, with too much aggression man can and may be destroyed. As aptly stated by Anthony Storr[41] in the introduction of his recent book entitled

Human Aggression: "One difficulty is that there is no clear dividing line between those forms of aggression which we deplore and those which we must not disown if we are to survive."

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[40] *Ibid.*

[41] Anthony Storr, *Human Aggression.* (New York, Atheneum, 1968), p. 127.

There are two major theories of aggression, the Instinctive Theory as advocated by Freud[42], Lorenz[43], Storrs[44], and others and the Learned Theory as proposed by Dollard, *et al.*[45]

Freud, sometime after World War I advocated that the aggressive instinct had its basis in the death (Thantos) instinct, which was contrasted to the life forces of man (Eros). Freud thought that Eros blocked Thantos, and that Libidio turned the death wish outside of one's self. Thus man was capable of alleviating his pressures against others to prevent masochism (self-punishment) or self-destruction. If socially acceptable outlets of aggression were found, the super-ego (guilt) turned back the aggressive drive to the organism.

Konrad Lorenz[46], an advocate of instinctual aggression stated in his book *On Aggression* that aggressive behavior is phylogenetically transmitted and has a distinct function of preservation of the species. Lorenz believed that aggression fell into two categories, inter-specific aggression and intra-specific aggression. Inter-specific aggression is behavior directed against other species and usually involves predator and prey. Intra-specific aggression is that behavior expressed against those of like species. Intra-specific aggression is displayed to preserve territorial rights, preserve self and family, in rival fighting, i.e., for food or acquisition of a female, and in fighting for leadership roles to protect the group from outside threats. Lorenz noted that even the most ferocious animals seldom kill their own kind, but have an instinct to preserve their species. Man, on the other hand, an animal with the weakest natural equipment for aggression has no instinct for preservation of the species, has now created instruments for the destruction of the human species. To preserve mankind, he believed that man must find acceptable ways of displacing his aggression.

In the early 1940's Dollard, *et al*[47] at Yale University rejected the instinctual theory of aggression and noted that aggression was learned and resulted from the frustration or the block of a goal directed response. They proposed that the strength of aggression depended upon the strength of the goal or instigation to the frustrated response and that inhibition to aggression varied positively with the amount of punishment expected as a result of the aggression.

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[42] Sigmund Freud, ***Beyond the Pleasure Principle.*** (London: Hogarth Press and Institute of Psycho-analysis, 1948), p. 1.

[43] Conrad Lorenz, ***On Aggression.*** (New York: Bantam Books, 1967).

[44] Storr, ***Human Aggression***, p. 127.

[45] Dollard, ***et al, Frustration and Aggression.*** (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1939), 150 pp.

[46] Lorenz, ***On Aggression.***

[47] Dollard, ***et al, Frustration and Aggression.***

Buss[48], Berkowitz[49], and Scott[50] have for the most part rejected the instinctual theory of aggression and have modified somewhat the hypothesis of Dollard, *et al.* Time and space does not warrant a discussion of these modifications.

Two hypothetical constructs concerning aggression have evolved. First, the displacement of aggression into social acceptable channels, such as observing or participating in sports, results in a catharsis or a lowering of the instigation or drive to aggress. Secondly, that seeing or experiencing aggression causes guilt, resulting in more frustration, and an increase in aggression. The former construct has been called the Cathartic Theory of Aggression and the latter the Circular Theory of Aggression.

Games and sports have been termed instrumental aggression. Competition is frustration, since sports are designed to frustrate and confuse the opponent. Winning involves injury, sometimes physical, usually mental to an opponent. That is, you cannot win without beating your opponent. If a team does not expect to win, there will be less frustration, thus perhaps less aggression. It is interesting to note that no research evidence exists that shows aggression to be different as a result of winning or losing an athletic contest.

The research evidence concerning aggression and participating in or observing sports is also contradictory. Studies by Stone[51]; Johnson, Hutton, and Johnson[52]; Husman[53], Crumbaugh, Salzberg, and Agee[54]; Kingsmore[55]; and Turner[56] have provided evidence, frequently within each study, that substantiates both the Cathartic and Circular Theories of Aggression. For the most part different types of projective tests were used in these studies, thus this may account for the discrepancies. There may, however, be another reason, which I would like to discuss briefly.

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[48] Arnold Buss, *The Psychology of Aggression.* (New York: Wiley Press, 1961).

[49] Leonard Berkowitz, *Aggression: A Social Psychological Analysis.* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962), pp. 24-25.

[50] J.P. Scott, *Aggression.* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958), 149 p.

[51] Allan Stone, "Catharsis Theory of Aggression." (Unpublished Study, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1951).

[52] Johnson, Hutton, and Johnson, "Personality Traits of Champion Athletes . . . " 25:484-485.

[53] Burris F. Husman, "Aggression in Boxers and Wrestlers as Measured by Projective Techniques," *The Research Quarterly,* (December, 1955), 26:421-425.

[54] James C. Crumbaugh, Herman C. Salzberg, and Frank Agee, "The Effects of Pool Therapy on Aggression," *Journal of Clinical Psychology,* (April, 1966), 22:2:236-237.

[55] John M. Kingsmore, "The Effect of Professional Wrestling and Professional Basketball Contest Upon the Aggressive Tendencies of Male Spectators." (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Maryland, 1968), 206 p.

[56] Edward T. Turner, "The Effects of Viewing College Football, Basketball, and Wrestling on the Elicited Aggressive Responses of Male Spectators." (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Maryland, 1968), 151 p.

Perhaps the reason for increased aggression after participation in a violent sport is due to anxiety and guilt produced as a result of that participation. If one reads the case studies related in Beisser's book entitled, "The Madness in Sports," and analyzes Ogilivie and Tutko's[57] paper entitled "The Unconscious Fear of Success," it becomes apparent that for some athletes there is a real fear (anxiety)[58] produced as a result of winning or "getting on top."

Beisser writes:

> "The poor competitor has learned to fear aggression most of the time, the average competitor fears it occasionally and the good competitor fears it only infrequently. It has been observed that the poor competitor avoided aggression in many ways both on and off the field. They spoke softly, and they avoided arguments. They tried to maintain friendly relations with their rivals under all circumstances."[59]

The fear of aggression is probably learned early in childhood. Corporal punishment or withholding of love as a result of the expression of aggression influences the growing child, teaching him to consider the consequences before aggressing. Thus the child develops "stop" and "go" signals for his behavior, and as a result, when he should be aggressive on the field of play, his super-ego (guilt) says "stop". Winning, therefore, in the unconscious, is tantamount to destroying the opposition. Through defense mechanisms the "champion" is able to deny winning, turn his aggression upon himself, the officials, the crowd, or in some way overcome the unconscious concomitants of winning. Perhaps this is why I found boxers to have more intra-punitive aggression (aggression turned toward self) than cross country runners or control subjects. This may also explain why the real "superchampion" in some sports is more introverted.[60]

According to Ogilivie and Tutko in their paper "The Unconscious Fear of Success", there are five syndromes which may prevent the high physically skilled individual from becoming a champion. These are:

1) A growing sense of social and emotional isolation.
2) Guilt feelings about self-assertion or overt aggression.
3) Lead to the habitual use of rationalization to protect the athlete from having to face the reality of true physical potential.
4) Produce unconscious feelings of resentment as a reaction to exaggerated external demands for excellence (usually parent).
5) Develop an unconscious fear of old traditions or old idols; develop an unconscious fear with regard to supporting the emotional weight of success or being the record holder.[61]

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[57] Ogilivie and Tutko, "The Unconscious Fear of Success".

[58] Brendan A. Maher, Ed., *Progress in Experimental Personality Research*. Volume 4. (Paper by Seymour Epstein, "Toward a Unified Theory of Anxiety," pp. 2-87). (New York and London: Academic Press, 1967), 323 p.

[59] Arnold R. Beisser, *The Madness in Sports*. (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967), 241 p.

[60] Husman, "Aggression in Boxers and Wrestlers . . . ", 26:421-425.

[61] Ogilivie and Tutko, "The Unconscious Fear of Success".

In summary, such phrases as "the crowd is with you, so it is OK to aggress", "the crowd cheers for the underdog is soon lost if one becomes the champion", and "what will happen if I am forced to play and defeat the champion, a previous idol", depict the true feelings of athletes who become known as players who "choke" when the chips are down.

Based on the above, there is little wonder that research evidence concerning the Cathartic Theory of Aggression in sports activities is contradictory. So many factors specific to each individual can influence the individual's aggression, that some may show a catharsis as a result of participation, while others may have increased aggression after participation because of the anxiety or fear created as a result of that participation.

Since emotion or "mental set" plays such an important part in the outcome of so many athletic contests, this paper would be incomplete without discussing this factor briefly.

During the 1920's, Walter Cannon[62], Canadian physiologist, presented a theory that purported to describe the relationship between the hypothalmus, cerebral cortex, and the endocrine system. Cannon hypothesized that the cortex normally controlled the hypothalmus, but during a state of emergency, hormones caused the cortex to lose control of the hypothalmus, causing a display of emotion. Since emotion continued after removal of the stimuli causing the emotion, Cannon further hypothesized that the sympathetic nervous system secreted hormones in emergency situations.

Opposition appeared concerning Cannon's theory. Some said it was not adrenalin that was important in emotion, but cortin. In a critical review it was stated that Cannon had to be wrong about the sympathetic nervous system secreting a hormone, because by definition only endocrine glands secrete hormones, not nerves, (It has since been shown that catecholamine, a neurohormone, is discharged by the sympathetic nervous system).

No discussion of emotion would be complete without a brief description of the work of Hans Selye[63] and his widely accepted theory on stress. Selye defined stress as the "state manifested by a specific syndrome which consists of all the nonspecifically induced changes within a biologic system." He described stress as the common denominator of all adaptive reactions on the body and labels all forces which tend to produce homeostatic change in the body "stressors."

Selye further claimed that the body sets up a line of defense against stressors and this pattern or grouping of symptoms resolves itself in a "general adaptation syndrome" which may be either general or specific. According to Selye, the organism uses an adaptative syndrome in meeting each stressful situation.

Selye's theory maintained that the stressor enters the organism through the nervous system. At the minute end points of each nerve branch hormone like chemical substances are discharged. These hormones are chemical messengers traveling in the blood to all parts of the body. Certain body cells (glands) are stimulated by these chemical messengers causing a discharge of additional hormones into the blood stream.

The discharge of ACTH and the somatotrophic hormone STH secreted by the pituitary gland work together to literally "prepare the body for action". There is an increase in cardiac rate and output; the rate and depth of external respiration increase; the vasoconstrictors constrict the blood vessels in the visceral area of the body and the vasodialator, dilate those in the muscles; sweat appears on the palms of the hand and soles of the feet; glycogen is discharged from the liver into the blood stream and the red blood corpuscles count increases, improving the oxygen carrying capacity of the blood. The body is ready for "fight" or "flight."

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[62] Walter B. Cannon, *Bodily Changes in Pain, Hunger, Fear, and Rage.* 2nd Edition. (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1929).

[63] Hans Selye, *The Stress of Life.* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1956).

Researchers in physical education have used a number of the physiological changes that occur during stress to measure the level of emotion of an individual, namely pulse rate, blood pressure, blood sugar, palmar sweat, 17-ketosteroid count (a metabolite of ACTH) and eosinophil count (a white blood cell). Ketosteroid count is determined from a urine sample and increases during emotion, while the eosinophil count is determined from a blood sample and decreases during emotion.

Ulrich[64], Ryan[65], Husman[66], Scubic[67], Hanson[68], to name a few, have completed studies employing the above techniques. Research evidence seems to indicate four rather interesting points.

1) Emotion seems to be specific to each individual, depending upon his past experiences. That is, an experienced sport parachutist would not exhibit the same fear (emotion) as a novice.
2) Each individual apparently has an optimum level of emotion (mental set) in order to perform optimally.
3) As emotion goes up, functioning intelligence goes down.
4) It is possible that the emotion of champion athletes does not vary from contest to contest. (It should be noted that this is substantiated by an earlier description of top athletes by Ogilivie)

There may be some question about emotion being specific, but a study by Berkum, *et al*[69] found by questioning the individuals about the stress situation, measuring objectively the performance during the same stress, and using a measurement of the physiological response to stress that individuals varied greatly when the stress was held constant. They suggested that the past experiences of an individual depended on how much the stressful situation influenced each subject.

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[64] C. Ulrich, "Measurement of Stress Evidenced by College Women in Situations Involving Competition," *The Research Quarterly*, (May, 1957), 28:160-172.

[65] E. Dean Ryan, "Effects of Motor Performance and Learning," *The Research Quarterly*, (March, 1962), 33:111-119.

[66] Burris F. Husman, Dale Hanson, and Ross Walker, "The Effect of Coaching Basketball and Swimming upon Emotion as Measured by Telemetry." (Paper presented at 2nd International Congress of Sport Psychology, Washington, D.C., November 1, 1968).

[67] Elvera Scubic, "Emotional Responses of Boys to Little League and Middle League Competitive Baseball," *The Research Quarterly* (October, 1955), 26:342-352.

[68] Dale Hanson, "Cardiac Response to Participation in Little League Baseball Competition as Determined by Telemetry," *The Research Quarterly*, (October, 1967), 38:384-388.

[69] Mitchell Berkum, Hilton M. Bialed, Richard Kern, and Kan Yagi, "Experimental Studies of Psychological Stress in Man," *Psychological Monographs*, (1962), 76:15, (While No. 534).

As previously indicated, it is extremely difficult to accurately evaluate the empirical evidence in the area of sport participation and personality and arrive at validated accurate conclusions. Research evidence available still has not told us whether an individual participates in sport because of a psychological need or whether as a result of sport participation his personality is altered. In fact, one recent investigator concluded his paper by saying, "It was proposed that personality is not a significant factor in sport performance."[70]

In view of the dilemma concerning sport participation and personality it is proposed:

1) That we pursue research to create new tests which will validate and improve old techniques of assessing personality. Apparently, there is some progress being made in assessing some of the physical measures, particularly of emotion. We should not overlook other physical measures such as techniques for measuring tension, motivation, and the technique called pupillometrics.[71] The latter perhaps could be used to measure how a person perceives an object or stimuli and the effect of this perception upon him. Eysenck[72] has suggested that motivation can be measured by reactive inhibition, and certainly refined techniques of electromyography have potential for measuring tension.
2) Our research should be based on some theoretical concept, instead of continuing to probe in the dark with inadequate tools, number of subjects and poor designs. On these topics Rushall said:

> "The consideration of a theoretical position to justify the investigation of this relationship is virtually non-existent in the literature. Explanations or descriptions are seldom offered as to why a functional relationship between personality and performance categories should exist. Most investigations are purposed towards the solution of specific questions. The lack of theoretical contemplation often negates research efforts as the consequent designs do not have the sensitivity or power to detect relationships, if they do exist . . .
>
> "The majority of produced works have dealt with convenient, intact groups as samples. The results from many of these studies have been invalidly inferred to larger populations. A lack of replication of experiments is a consistent failing. With replication of intact samples, one can consider the possibility of consistent results as giving an indication towards a relationship."
>
> "A variety of sample sizes have been used. Small sized groups in comparisons have not yielded differences because of a lack of statistical power. Large numbers have facilitated the revelation of statistically significant differences which often approach the realm of practical trivia."[73]

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[70] Brent S. Rushall, "An Evaluation of the Relationship Between Personality and Physical Performance Categories." (Paper presented at the 2nd International Congress of Sport Psychology, Washington, D.C., November 1, 1968).

[71] Echbord H. Hess, "Attitude and Pupil Size," *Scientific American*, (April, 1965), 212:46-54.

[72] H.J. Eysenck, "The Measurement of Motivation," *The Scientific American*, (May, 1963), 208:5:130.

[73] Rushall, "An Evaluation of the Relationship . . .".

It is apparent then, if we are to succeed in solving this problem we must improve the design of our research, repeat studies on intact samples, so conclusions may be drawn and extrapolation made to parameters. Then, and only then will empirical evidence begin to indicate a relationship between personality and sport participation. It should also be noted that new statistical procedures, such as multivariate analysis may also help our research efforts.

3) We should continue to study aggression as it relates to sports. Attempts should be made to substantiate the catharsis of aggression as a result of participating in or observing sports. The effect of winning and losing on aggression should also be studied. To accomplish this task, it will be necessary to create hypothetical concepts, concerning sport and catharsis and to create new tests and devices for assessing aggression.
4) An attempt should be made to probe the fear of success concept proposed by Beisser and Ogilivie, et al[74]. We need empirical evidence in addition to the case study work completed.
5) Further research efforts are needed to substantiate the theory that champion athletes maintain a relatively stable emotion prior to an important contest.

Even with our meager evidence, all is not lost. Research evidence collected to date has led one outstanding coach[75] to propose a "holistic" approach to training. He has been made aware of the fact that an outstanding performance is based upon more than strength, endurance, and motor coordination, but also upon the mental and social aspects of behavior. Poor mental set, the participants mind confused by the pressure of society, girl friend, the test he just failed, rebellion on the campus, and so forth will undoubtedly influence performance. Coaches, and those in the business of teaching movement skills to students should certainly understand and be willing to explore these many factors influencing learning and behavior.

Like an article I recently wrote, entitled, "The Topless Profession," research opportunity for those interested and for those who want to continue to probe in the dark for answers to many unknown questions is literally "topless."

Reaction to "Sport and Personality Dynamics"

E. Dean Ryan
University of California – Davis

In a sense Husman's paper was a major undertaking. He has covered in a brief period of time what easily could have been discussed over several sessions. His review of important literature was good, and it gives all of us a starting point if we care to investigate the area more thoroughly. As I listened to his paper now, and as I read it earlier, however, I found myself disagreeing with his conclusions more often than not. What I'd like to do, and perhaps what the two of us will have time to do later, is sit down over a beer, and go over our points of disagreement one at a time to see if we can clarify our differences. Time doesn't permit that now, however, so I'll touch on only a few points that I think are important, and at least to me they are also interesting.

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[74] Ogilivie, and Tutko, "The Unconscious Fear of Success".

[75] J. Kenneth Daugherty, *Modern Training in Running.* (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1964), 281 p.

First, the personality traits of various sports groups. I think Husman pointed out the major problem in his concluding statement. The research in this area has largely been of the "shot gun" variety. By that I mean the investigators grabbed the nearest and most convenient personality test, and the closest sports group, and with little or no theoretical basis for their selection fired into the air to see what they could bring down. It isn't surprising that firing into the air at different times and at different places, and using different ammunition, should result in different findings. In fact it would be surprising if the results weren't contradictory and somewhat confusing.

I think, however, that the findings can make more sense and be somewhat more coherent if we look at a study done by a colleague of mine, Bill Lakie[1]. Husman referred to the study, but I'd like to go over it in a bit more detail. Instead of comparing one college or university, or one sports group, as most of the other investigators have done, he compared several schools, and several sports groups at each school. Taken individually his results are much like the other studies. At one school, for example, he found football players differing from track men on a particular personality scale. This difference did not exist at any other institution however. At another college he found that basketball players and wrestlers were significantly different from tennis players and golfers. Again, this difference was not found at any of the other schools. When he lumped all the athletes from the four schools together no differences were found between any of the sports groups. In other words, if you look at any one school you may find differences between various sports groups. As an example, one study cited by Husman was done by Bosco[2]. The fact that Bosco found gymnasts at the University of Illinois in 1962 more intelligent than other athletes sampled at that institution simply meant that the gymnastic team at the University of Illinois in 1962 happened to have a smarter group of athletes in relation to the other teams. Down the road fifty miles the gymnasts might have been the dumbest group of athletes. Lakie also found personality differences between athletes at different schools. It shouldn't surprise us, for example, if the football player at Harvard had a different personality profile than the footballer at Grambling College. The further fact that the footballer at Grambling College is more successful at professional football than the footballer at Harvard doesn't indicate anything about personality and athletes. While we find these relationships, they are virtually meaningless for the things we say we are interested in.

This doesn't mean that there may not be important differences between athletes who compete in individual sports as compared to team sports, or between those who participate in sports and those who do not. It simply means that the "shot gun" technique is not the appropriate technique to employ in investigating these relationships.

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[1] W.L. Lakie, "Personality Characteristics of Certain Groups of Intercollegiate Athletes," *Research Quarterly*, 33:566-573, 1962.

[2] J.S. Bosco, "The Physical and Personality Characteristics of Champion Male Gymnasts," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, 1964).

Studies based on some theoretical position would seem to be more productive. I'll briefly mention two theoretical areas that are of interest to me and seem to have some prospects for significance. I'll simply refer you to a study done by myself that deals with perceptual differences[3]. We found that we could definitely distinguish between contact athletes, noncontact athletes, and non athletes on the basis of time judgement, kinesthetic figural aftereffects, and pain tolerance. While these factors at first seem quite unrelated, when viewed from the proper theoretical framework they are quite meaningful. The theory suggests that some individuals have a tendency to "enhance" or "augment" the intensity of their perceptions, while other individuals have a tendency to "diminish" or "reduce" the intensity of their perceptions[4]. The contact athlete fits the pattern of the "reducer", the non-athlete fits the pattern of the "augmenter", and the non-contact athlete falls in between. These findings, if replicated by others, would seem to have very definite implications for education in general, and for physical education in particular.

The second theoretical framework that I believe has some implication for us is the area of "Achievement Motivation". This concept could tie several areas of research together including Husman's second sub-topic "motor ability and physical fitness". Let me approach the topic in a round about way. It seems to me that in the area of personality and motor fitness most of the researchers have missed the point. They have said, "Since we have found no personality differences between various athletic groups, let us look at 'motor ability' and personality. It may be that the potential athlete, i.e., the one with high motor ability, may have personality characteristics that will distinguish him from the individual with low motor ability." Consciously or not, these investigators were assuming that both personality and motor ability are genetically determined. If a latent, or potential ability is related to personality it obviously is not developed as a result of the interaction of the two factors. If these two factors had been related, both must have been either inherited or personality and motor ability were both developed by some third, and as yet unspecified factor. I'm not denying the possibility that heredity may play a part in personality development, I simply don't believe the investigators were interested in asking this particular question. Interestingly enough, while most of the studies have been negative, at least one has been positive. I think this can be explained in at least two ways. The first, as we did earlier for differences between athletic groups. For those particular groups there simply happened to be personality differences, but this doesn't allow us to generalize beyond that particular sample. The second I alluded to earlier, when I mentioned "achievement motivation". In the physical education literature are a number of studies indicating a substantial correlation between motor fitness and grades, or between athletics and grades. I personally don't believe that there is a cause and effect relationship between these factors, in spite of the fact that they are frequently associated.

Let me tell you about an experiment that I did that I believe points out the important relationship.[5] I took a large sample of male students and had them perform on the stabilometer, which is a little like a small teeter-totter that the subject tries to balance. I obtained college grade point averages, and college entrance examination scores for all of the subjects. I found no relation between grades and ability to perform the motor task, and no relation between college entrance exam scores and performance on the task. When I separated the sample on previous athletic experience there was no difference between the athlete and the non-athlete. Next I assumed that the college entrance exam was a measure of potential academic ability, and that grade point average was a measure of actual academic achievement. I converted both measures to Standard Scores so I could compare them, then I said if a person scored higher on college entrance exams than he did on grade point he was an underachiever, and if he scored higher on grade point than on college entrance exam he was an over achiever. When I compared over-achievers with under-achievers on stabilometer performance there was a significant difference, with the over-achievers performing better than the under-achievers. It wasn't grades in this study, or intelligence, or athletic experience that made the difference in performance. It was the fact that the person who tried hard on one task also tried hard on the other. Another study by myself in the area of competition, but using projective personality scores of "need achievement" demonstrated the same basic idea.[6] In other words, even though we find relationships between physical fitness and grades, it doesn't necessarily mean that higher fitness will mean higher grades, and it certainly doesn't mean that higher grades will lead to better fitness. What is probably happening is that the person who is motivated to work in one area is motivated to work in the other. While it has never been investigated I would suspect that the persons scoring high on motor fitness tests would also score high on "need achievement".

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[3] E.D. Ryan and R. Foster, "Athletic Participation and Perceptual Augmentation and Reduction," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 6:472-476, 1967.

[4] Asenith Petrie, *Individuality in Pain and Suffering*, (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1967).

[5] E.D. Ryan, "Relative Academic Achievement and Stabilometer Performance," *Research Quarterly*, 34:185-190, 1963.

One more brief mention of "Achievement Motivation". Work by John Atkinson has linked achievement motivation and anxiety into what I think is very close to a theory of competition.[7] He relates the personality factors of achievement motivation and anxiety to the situational factors of incentive and probability of success. Predictions from this theory would seem to be quite accurate in the field of athletics.

In the area of aggression Husman has quickly discussed two theoretical positions. I might comment briefly on the two theories since they do have some bearing on what is to be expected in the area of catharsis – a topic that was discussed at some length.

As it relates to man the instinct hypothesis is advocated primarily by psychoanalysts. They maintain that aggressive energy is constantly being generated within the body, and unless this energy can be neutralized or discharged in some socially acceptable way, the pent up energy would eventually and inevitably lead to destructive acts, either on the individual himself or other people. This has frequently been referred to as the "steam boiler" of "hydraulic" theory of aggression. The pressure in the boiler builds up, and if there is no way to reduce the pressure, eventually there will be an explosion. It is proposed that all that is needed to release the pressure is some physical act. Incidently, Storrs[8] and Lorenz[9] believe that competition can serve as a catharsis for aggression.

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[6] E.D. Ryan and W.L. Lakie, "Competitive and Noncompetitive Performance in Relation to Achievement Motive and Manifest Anxiety," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1:342-345, 1965.

[7] J.W. Atkinson, *An Introduction to Motivation,* Princeton, New Jersey, Van Nostrand, 1964).

The second theoretical position, described by Husman as the "Learned Theory", while not denying the possibility, or even the probability of an aggressive instinct, emphasizes the learned aspect of aggression. Probably the most recently published theory of aggression states that instead of a "pushing out", or a "discharge" or "drainage" of aggression as suggested by the previous theory, that anger only creates a readiness for aggression.[10] No aggression will occur, however, unless there are suitable cues present in the environment. In other words, a person is a little bit like a pistol. The pistol is loaded as a result of previous learning and possibly an aggressive instinct. Anger will cock the pistol, but there will have to be cues associated with the present or previous anger instigators to cause the pistol to be fired. This theory clearly suggests that simple physical activity or attacks against a neutral object, would not be expected to result in a reduction of anger.

As Husman pointed out, the evidence in this area is quite limited. I have not read the two theses done recently at Maryland, but all of the other studies dealing specifically with sports have had too few subjects, or lack the proper controls to enable us to generalize from them. Even if we accept the findings of these studies they suggest an increase in anxiety as a result of sports participation rather than catharsis. Studies not dealing directly with sports suggest that aggression leads to further aggression.

As far as the case studies reported by Beisser are concerned, I find these interesting, but feel there is no basis for generalizing beyond the very few cases actually studied. Ogilivie and Tutko's paper provides an interesting hypothesis for someone to investigate, but at this point I am not aware of any data to substantiate their position. The area of aggression as it relates to competition, sports, and vigorous activity simply has not been investigated. There have been some interesting starts, but they only suggest how complex the area is. For example, a study by Epstein and Taylor indicated that the amount of aggression expressed varied not only as a function of the degree of defeat, but also with the aggressive intent of the opponent.[11] In a study that I have just completed (in fact the data has not been completely analyzed) using behavioral measures of aggression rather than projective tests, shows that simply expressing aggression or performing physical activity is not sufficient to reduce anger. It depends greatly on who is aggressed against.

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[8] A. Storr, *Human Aggression,* (New York, Atheneum, 1968).

[9] K. Lorenz *On Aggression,* (Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., New York, 1966).

[10] L. Berkowitz, "The Concept of Aggressive Drive: Some Additional Considerations," in *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology,* ed. by L. Berkowitz (New York: Academic Press, 1965), Vol. 2.

[11] S. Epstein and P.T. Taylor, "Instigation to Aggression as a Function of Degree of Defeat and Perceived Aggressive Intent of the Opponent," *Journal of Personality,* 35:265-289, 1967.

Finally, the area of emotion. A fairly new theory of emotion has been proposed by Stanley Schachter.[12] Schachter suggested that emotion has both an affective and a cognitive component, i.e., both feeling and thinking. He suggested that it might be possible to arouse a person physiologically then supply different cognitive experiences and thus arouse different expressed emotions. The initial physiological state would be the same for all subjects, only the cognitive content would differ.

He administered an adrenalin-like substance (epinephrine) to the subjects, then gave half of the subjects information as to the actual effects of the adrenalin and the other half misinformation. He then placed the subject in one of two situations. In one he had a stooge act quite happy, in the other he had the stooge act angry. When subjects knew what the injection of adrenalin was supposed to feel like neither of the stooges had an effect. When the subject was misinformed, however, i.e., when he was unaware of what was causing his aroused feeling, he interpreted his feeling as anger or happiness, depending on which stooge he was placed with. I'll let you work out the practical applications of this theory to athletics and to physical education. At the present time I'm too busy trying to find out how to arouse the ladies, and then convince them that their emotion is passion.

Reaction To "Sport and Personality Dynamics"

Robert E. McAdam
University of Minnesota

Dean Ryan has written a nine page, rather scholarly treatment in response to Burris' paper. It has been suggested that I *not* read it at this time; and I am afraid that I cannot select those points which Dean might like to have emphasized. His paper, however, will be included in the Proceedings so that you might have the benefit of his thinking. The following remarks, therefore, will be my own – and since they are somewhat spontaneous may not be any more enlightening than your own thoughts on the presentation which was made.

First I should say that I am pleased with the selection of the topic which asks questions about the role of activity as it relates to the psychological status or development of the individual. Hopefully, in ten or fifteen years, we will have sharpened our research tools and gained the degree of sophistication in technique for the study of the psychological that we have already reached in the study of the physiological questions related to exercise. Also, I felt that Burris' treatment of a rather difficult topic was commendable.

Burris elected to limit the treatment of the topic "Sport and Personality" almost exclusively to a discussion of "aggression". We can accept this. At the same time however, we should keep in mind that "Personality" includes a wide range of traits, characteristics and qualities which, at another time, deserve our studious attention.

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[12] S. Schachter, "The Interaction of Cognative and Physiological Determinants of Emotional States," in *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, ed. by L. Berkowitz (New York: Academic Press, 1964), Vol. 1.

In most of the studies which were cited there was an obvious drive toward the determination of an *association* of a trait or traits with particular sports or activities. This is perhaps a sensible first step in our explorations. But, and I don't wish to be trite in these comments – we must always be cautious in the interpretation of such relationships, if they are, indeed, found to exist. It must be, for example, determined if these are direct relationships, or merely common associations with secondary factors. In addition, cause and effect relationships, their direction of movement, and the mechanisms which are operating in such relationships, become important concerns if we are to relate such studies ultimately to training routines or to school program modifications.

A final comment with regard to the particular personality trait chosen here for discussion – namely "aggression". It seems to me that most of the questions about this have been asked in one direction – "what are the activities which are associated with the trait of "aggression". Another side of the question – which is implicit in these studies, but not often expressed is, what activities, if any are associated with the reduction of aggression, particularly as this relates to a highly competitive and somewhat cut-throat society.

Reaction to "Sport and Personality Dynamics"

R.N. Singer
Illinois State University

Because of the complexity of the topic, I will react to Dr. Husman's interpretation of research results concerning sport and personality dynamics rather than the meaning of such words as personality, aggression, and emotion. As Dr. Husman has pointed out, these words are extremely difficult to define. They have caused psychologists, psychiatrists, physical educators, and others concerned, much problem in their usage. Certainly today, we will not be able to resolve definitions of these terms, the definitions that have plagued interested parties for such a long period of time.

However, Dr. Husman has at least provided us with a working arrangement of terms. Now let us look a little bit closer at what the research implications are for the physical educator and coach. The first area I would like to discuss concerns personality in its broadest interpretation. In recent years, more literature is becoming available concerning personality traits related to athletic participation versus non-athletic participation; team sport participation versus individual sport participation; and outstanding achievement versus average achievement within a given sport.

Many of these studies have been quite isolated and almost unrelated in objective. Because of the nature of the personality instruments used, populations or samples employed, and the statistical treatment of the data which might vary from study to study, it is no wonder that interpretation of the results are often quite confusing to anyone concerned with finding meaningful relationships.

Let us examine the problem of instrumentation first. There are numerous types of instruments that might be used for research purposes, as Dr. Husman pointed out. Most often, the type of instrument used by the researcher is a form of some sort that the athlete completes himself. In other words, he provides data concerning himself. Objections to this method are self-evident. These tests are quite open to criticism since there is much room for respondent cheating as well as misinterpretation of the questions. In addition, because different personality tests have been developed to measure different personality traits in many cases, or at least to call them by different names, it is no wonder that confusion exists.

Perhaps one of the greater advancements in recent years toward understanding the relationship of personality to athletic interests and accomplishments lies in the application of more appropriate statistical tools. Traditionally, traits have been compared between groups of interest and differences noted. This technique is called univariate analysis namely because one variable or trait is analyzed at a time. Lately, with the use of multiple discriminant analysis, an individual's personality profile is represented by a score. Profile differences rather than trait differences are analyzed. Under this concept, the individual is treated more dynamically and is not broken down into parts, or separate traits. Profile scores or differences in profiles are, perhaps, more indicative of possible differences between groups than is an isolated trait here and there. As we know, sampling error can often be attributed to these random or isolated differences investigators have found when comparing traits.

Therefore, I would like to emphasize that contradictory results from study to study concerned with basically the same problem may not only be due to differences in personality instrumentation, subject selection, and testing techniques, but also statistics employed.

With regard to research interpretations and conclusions, I would like to make the following statements:

1) We need more a priori research. The predictive value of data is really of importance, not after-the-fact evidence. Longitudinal or semi-longitudinal research will provide information on whether personality tests can predict those who would participate in one type of activity versus another or who would achieve excellence or mediocrity.

2) Dr. Husman reports that research evidence does not tell us if the athlete participates due to psychological needs or whether he is changed due to participation. I think indirect evidence points to the fact that both factors operate.

   Because one's personality is determined by genetic factors but modified from environmental experiences, it is realized that a strong possibility exists of the influence of personality on activity preferences as well as the personality mold is formed early in life but can be changed by later experiences.

   Is the athlete born with physical and psychological characteristics enabling him to have a greater probability of success than another? There is a moderate correlation of .50 usually found when each succeeding generation of a family is compared as to such physical qualities as height, weight, and body build. So, to the extent that physical characteristics are associated with athletic achievement, there is an indication of the role that heredity plays.

   Further, research by Gedda and others demonstrated that the Olympic athlete and his family practice similar activities, that specific physical and psychological qualities of the Olympians could be attributed to heredity. Evidently, a certain ideal combination of personality traits are associated with outstanding athletic accomplishments, and because they seem to occur within the athlete's family, genetics are thought to play a role in determining success.

On a more empirical basis, opinions are often expressed on the personality changes that occur due to athletic participation. It is thought (or hoped) that more desirable changes will occur from the experience. From his observations on competitive girl swimmers throughout pre-adolescence and adolescence, Ogilvie states that (a) with greater success in competition, the girls become more outgoing and less reserved; (b) competition increases emotional stability and toughmindedness; and (c) with age, tension and anxiety are reduced, more self-control and self-discipline are demonstrated, and there is a shift from apprehension and worry to self-confidence.

Other evidence points to the undesirable association of athletics and values. In one study, it was found that poorer sportsmanship attitudes were displayed by college students who had varsity experience than non-athletes. In another study, varsity letter winners showed less favorable sportsmanship qualities than did non-letter winners. Subsidized athletes (the better athletes?) scored poorer than non-subsidized athletes. It is difficult to state for sure that these characteristics were the result of athletic experience or whether, because of the presence of these characteristics, the athletes were successful. However, there does seem to be some conflict between the ideals of our society and the, perhaps, realistic (materialistic?) way in which athletes enter competition.

3) It is felt by many that the distinctions between the greatest athletes representing given sports and those athletes less superior may not only be described in physical or physiological terms. There is good reason why psychologists are busy collecting personality data on Olympic athletes and professional athletes. The differences in athletic achievements may very well be found to lie in psychological factors.

Some researchers have attained better success than others when comparing the personalities of various skill-level achievement groups within a sport. For example, Ogilvie and Tutko, two psychologists from San Jose State College in California, after collecting information on countless athletes, feel they can characterize the outstanding athlete and distinguish him from lesser athletes. They describe the gifted individual as one who has a high need to achieve, can resist the stress of competition, has great psychological endurance, is self-confident and self-assertive, and the like.

Other investigators have observed Olympic champion athletes to be more sensitive and introspective than lesser-skilled athletes. One might expect the better performer to worry more about his specialty, to be self-analytical and self-critical. Even major league baseball players, as LaPlace reports, are distinguished from minor leaguers on such traits. Furthermore, whereas both groups of baseball players displayed the same levels of drive, the minor leaguers were less socially adjusted.

On the other hand, a number of researchers have not noted differences between groups. Kroll, after classifying three groups of wrestlers and three groups of karate participants, stated that no personality profile components or patterns distinguished the groups. In other words, levels of proficiency within each sport did not seem to be dependent on or, should we say, associated with personality factors. Gold's findings indicated that professional and varsity tennis players score similarly on the Guilford-Martin Personality Inventory as do professional and varsity golf players.

With better measuring devices and techniques, consistently applied over a wide range of athletes representing various sports, perhaps there will occur greater agreement between experimental results. A number of professional teams are currently being administered personality instruments. Hopefully, the information would provide greater insight into the nature of the players and help to predict later behavior in given situations. Perhaps some day coaches will hold such confidence in personality evaluations that they will select performers for key situations dependent on their situation-compatible personalities.

The potential outcome of knowing the personality of a performer has yet to be realized. With only the beginnings of research becoming known, it must be expected that confusion and contradiction would occur. With more sophisticated instruments and better experimental designs, there is great promise in the area of personality evaluation and the application of such information to the sports' scene.

4) As to emotions, not only is it true that emotion is specific to each individual, as Dr. Husman mentioned, but also emotional reactions are specific to given situations. People, as is indicated by research by Parsons, Phillips, and Kane, are not consistent in their reactions to stressful situations. In other words, there is no general resistance factor to stress.

Also, it would appear that emotions play a greater role in the learning of complex tasks rather than simple tasks. High-anxious individuals do poorly in learning more difficult skills. This factor becomes more apparent at the advanced stages of learning sports skills. Stressful situations are more disruptive to the learning of complex tasks than simple tasks. At the early stages of learning, one might expect differences in performance as a result of the stress effect than at later stages, where it is more resistent to stress influence.

Theoretically speaking, Hull's work, extended by Spence, describes the relation of the task to the performer in the following way. In a given task, when correct responses are dominant over incorrect responses, increased emotion (such as brought out by the presence of spectators) should improve performance. This is the case in a simple task or when a task is well-learned. In the early stages of skill mastery, where incorrect responses might be predicted to dominate over correct responses, the audience effect or any other stressful condition would be detrimental to performance.

In closing, it does appear that our factual knowledge on personality, emotions and sport is quite hazy and camouflaged. However, the important thing is that questions are being raised and tentative answers, based on increasing research, are suggested. Although most research and interest in physical education has tended to fall in the physiological area, greater concern has been demonstrated in psychology in recent years than ever before. To explain and predict behavior is not only the psychologist's concern. It is ours, too.

The Pratt Family — Laymen Extraordinary in the History of Physical Education*

J. Edmund Welch
West Virginia Institute of Technology

The historical literature on the contributions of professional leaders in physical education is fairly complete. Articles, textbooks, theses, and dissertations carry accounts of such early leaders as Edward Hitchcock, Dudley Sargent, William Anderson, Delphine Hanna, Luther Gulick, and Thomas Wood. Similar studies have been made on more modern leaders such as Charles McCloy, Jesse Feiring Williams, Mary Channing Coleman, and Thomas McDonough.

Little research has been done on the contributions of laymen to the field of physical education. One remarkable family in this category was the Charles Pratts of Brooklyn, New York. The benefactions of Charles Pratt and his six sons to physical education were so pervasive that a single paper could not treat them adequately. In fact, the Pratts would be an excellent subject for a dissertation or book. This paper will point out the salient contributions of the Pratts and leave a comprehensive investigation to another author. Each of the Pratts will be treated as they related themselves to such outstanding physical education institutions as Amherst College; Springfield College; the Association for the Advancement of Physical Education, now the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; the YMCA Movement; and the United States Volleyball Association.

CHARLES PRATT (1830-1891)

Charles Pratt was a wealthy oil merchant and philanthropist. He had little formal education, but by the age of thirty-seven he had established an oil refinery business on Long Island. This firm, known as Charles Pratt & Company, was extremely successful. In 1874 John D. Rockefeller acquired the Pratt works, and Pratt became an executive with the Standard Oil Company. When Pratt died in 1891, he was the wealthiest man in Brooklyn.[1]

Charles Pratt set a pattern of philanthropy which was followed by his sons. The beneficences of the Pratts were by no means confined to physical education, but this paper will deal with those gifts directed towards this field. As an example of the variety of the Pratt gifts, Charles Pratt erected a model tenement for workingmen, which was the first of its kind; gave a building to Adelphi Academy which housed 1000 pupils; built and endowed Pratt Institute; established the Pratt Institute Free Library, which was the first free library in either Brooklyn or New York City; and gave the money for the Emmanuel Baptist Church of Brooklyn.[2] In relation to Pratt Institute, which Charles Pratt, his wife, and six sons endowed to the sum of $9,500,000, it should be pointed out that the campus included a gymnasium, a football field, and a baseball field.[3]

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*A bibliography may be obtained from the author upon request.

[1] Dumas Malone (ed.), "Charles Pratt," *Dictionary of American Biography* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935), p. 169.

Relationship to Amherst College

In the 1870's Amherst College had no suitable field for intercollegiate sports. Dr. Edward Hitchcock, the pioneer director of physical education, suggested to one of his students, Lucien Ira Blake, that he secure the funds for such a field. Blake seized upon Hitchcock's suggestion and went to New York City to solicit funds. "He secured some $20,000, one of the donors being Charles Pratt . . . ."[4]

Blake returned to Amherst and proceeded to build an athletic field for the college. This rather small gift by Charles Pratt was significant because it marked the first of many gifts by the Pratts to further the field of physical education.

Relationship to the Association for the Advancement of Physical Education

When William G. Anderson conceived the idea of founding a professional organization in physical education, he was a young instructor at Adelphi Academy of Brooklyn. At that time, Charles Pratt was chairman of the board of trustees of this school.

Anderson was quick to learn in his career that if he wanted to make an idea succeed he needed the support of influential men. The first man Anderson approached with his scheme for a professional organization was Charles Pratt who replied, "Good, go ahead."[5]

Anderson's efforts to found a professional organization met with success in 1885. The first meeting of the Association was held at Adelphi Academy. The second annual meeting, also held at Adelphi Academy, featured a welcoming address by Charles Pratt. He stated how physical education had helped him carry heavy responsibility in business. Pratt claimed that he could not have met the responsibility without attention to his health, and he issued this challenge to the new Association:

> The strenuous life of our great cities is a constant temptation to overdo. Cannot this Association suggest some means of leading our earnest professional men to see that often more and better work can be done in five hours a day, than in ten or fifteen, which they are often giving to it.[6]

Thus we can see that the elder Pratt played an important role in the founding of the present-day American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

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[2] *Ibid.*

[3] "Frederic Bayley Pratt," *The National Cyclopaedia of American Biography* (New York: James T. White & Company, 1948), XXXIV, p. 154.

[4] Stanley King, *The Consecrated Eminence: The Story of the Campus and Buildings of Amherst College* (Amherst, Massachusetts: Amherst College, 1951), p. 85.

[5] William G. Anderson, "The Early History of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation," *Journal of Health and Physical Education,* XII, No. 1 (January, 1941), p. 3.

[6] ______________. "The Early History of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation," *Journal of Health and Physical Education,* XII, No. 4 (April, 1941), p. 244.

CHARLES MILLARD PRATT (1855-1935)
Amherst College, Class of 1879

Upon graduation from Amherst, Charles M. Pratt became secretary, treasurer, and a director of the Standard Oil Company. In addition, he was a director in at least a half dozen other corporations.

Relationship to Amherst College

While a student at Amherst, Charles M. Pratt was very interested in physical education, and he was elected Class Captain to lead his class in the various gymnastic exercises. Pratt and Dr. Edward Hitchcock formed a friendship which was to last until the latter's death in 1911.

Three years after Charles M. Pratt graduated, he offered the sum of $25,000 to build a new gymnasium for his alma mater, provided the college would equip the building. The trustees accepted the offer, and by 1884 Amherst College had the second most expensive college gymnasium in America. The Amherst gymnasium actually cost $69,200, of which Pratt gave $35,275. (Harvard University's Hemenway Gymnasium, constructed in 1879, cost $110,000.) The equipment for the new Pratt Gymnasium was selected by Edward Hitchcock and Dudley Sargent, the two foremost physical educators of the era. Pratt Gymnasium served as the college gymnasium for fifty years.

The discrepancy in Pratt's gift and the total cost of the building was due to a disagreement over the selection of an architect and a subsequent delay in construction. Pratt insisted on naming an architect from New York City after the Amherst trustees had already received plans from two other architectural firms.

Despite the ticklish turn of events involving Pratt Gymnasium, the gift of Charles M. Pratt was especially important for Amherst College. Pratt Gymnasium was the first building erected by an alumnus, and Charles Pratt solidified the precedent of his father in giving money for physical education programs. The next five successive Pratt brothers also graduated from Amherst and gave liberally to physical education programs at that college.

A second gift by Charles M. Pratt for the Amherst College physical education department occurred in 1907. It was then that Pratt gave an outdoor skating rink and rink house to the college.

Relationship to the YMCA Movement

Charles M. Pratt was a director and trustee of the Brooklyn YMCA and the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Associations. The latter body gave national and international leadership to YMCAs in the United States and Canada.

Because of his activities in educational and other fields, Charles M. Pratt was awarded an honorary M.A. degree from Yale University in 1903.[7]

FREDERIC BAYLEY PRATT (1865-1945)
Amherst College, Class of 1887

Immediately upon graduating from Amherst, Frederic B. Pratt joined the staff of Pratt Institute as secretary of the board of trustees and executive head.

> Four years later his father died and from then until 1937 he carried the operational responsibilities, executing his father's plans for the development of

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[7] "Charles Millard Pratt," *The National Cyclopaedia of American Biography* (New York: James T. White & Company, 1940), XXVIII, p. 209.

> an educational organ in Brooklyn that would teach specific skills for those who sought them . . . During his more than fifty years of service with Pratt Institute, he guided it to a place of eminence in the scholastic world.[8]

Relationship to Amherst College

Frederic B. Pratt was also a Class Captain in physical education at Amherst College. In 1890 he offered to build a new athletic field for Amherst. Pratt Field was dedicated on May 22, 1891.

The original gift by Frederic Pratt was $15,000, plus $5,000 for the maintenance and improvement of the field. The total cost of Pratt Field was $25,496; and when the final bills were in, Pratt sent the college an additional $5,000.[9] Pratt Field included facilities for football, baseball, track, cricket, lacross, and tennis. A covered grandstand, with team dressing rooms and with a seating capacity of 500, was also a part of these facilities. Pratt Field has been Amherst's central varsity athletic field since 1891.

Relationship to Springfield College

In 1894 Frederic B. Pratt became a trustee of Springfield College and served on the Subcommittee on Physical Education. While on the board of trustees, Pratt got to know the talented Luther Gulick. He persuaded Gulick to move to New York City and become principal of Pratt Institute. This move changed Gulick's professional career in a major way. Later he became director of physical education for the New York City Schools, founded the Camp Fire Girls of America, and was a founder of the Playground Association of America.

When Frederic Pratt retired from the Springfield College trustees, he presented President Laurence L. Doggett a check for $5,000 and suggested that his brother, Herbert L. Pratt, replace him. This suggestion proved to be as meaningful to physical education as the one Frederic Pratt made to Luther Gulick, for in the words of President Doggett, Herbert Pratt became "the patron of the Physical Department of the school."[10]

Relationship to the YMCA Movement

Frederic Pratt was chairman of the Athletic League from its formation in 1895 until his resignation in December, 1909. This national body was the vehicle through which YMCAs promoted competition in various sports.

In recognition of his contributions, Amherst College awarded Frederic Pratt honorary M.A. and LL.D. degrees in 1904 and 1917, respectively.[11]

GEORGE DUPONT PRATT (1869-1935)
Amherst College, Class of 1893

George D. Pratt held such business positions as assistant to the president of the Long Island Railroad Company, treasurer of Chelsea Fiber Mills, and treasurer and vice-president of the financial firm of Charles Pratt & Company, which managed the estate left by his father. "His business activities, however, were a minor phase of his career."[12]

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[8] "Frederic Bayley Pratt," *op. cit.*

[9] King, *op. cit.*, p. 100.

[10] Laurence Locke Doggett, *Man and a School* (New York: Association Press, 1943), p. 42.

[11] "Frederic Bayley Pratt," *op. cit.*, p. 156.

Relationship to Amherst College

Four years after George Pratt graduated from Amherst, he joined with two of his brothers, Herbert and John, to give the college an infirmary. This became known as the Pratt Health Cottage. The three brothers gave Amherst $25,000 to build the infirmary and another $20,000 as endowment for its support and maintenance.

In 1926 George joined with Harold Pratt to provide ornamental gateways to the Pratt Athletic Field at Amherst College. George contributed $10,000 and Harold gave $5,000.

Relationship to the YMCA Movement

Dr. George J. Fisher, Senior Secretary for Physical Education of the International Committee, interested George Pratt in the giving of both his time and money to YMCA physical education. Pratt became chairman of the Physical Department of the International Committee of the YMCAs. Such a position would be comparable today of that of chairman of the National YMCA Physical Education Committee. The exact years George Pratt served were not determined by this investigator, but he did hold this position for at least five years and probably longer.

In 1909 the Physical Directors' Society of the YMCA launched a "Teach America to Swim Campaign."[13] The purpose was "to teach swimming to every boy and young man in North America who does not know how to swim."[14] All those who were able to pass the swimming test of fifty feet were to be awarded an oxidized silver button. George Pratt provided a generous donation to supply ten thousand buttons for free distribution to get the program underway.[15]

On the local level, George Pratt contributed funds to the Brooklyn and Queens YMCA for the establishment of Camp Pratt at Princess Bay, Staten Island, New York.

> This camp was designed especially for boys who could not go long distances to camp or stay for long terms . . . In 1914, Herbert L. Pratt gave $25,000 toward this development – seventeen acres with a 450-foot frontage on Princess Bay.[16]

YMCA officials, both professionals and laymen, helped found the Boy Scouts of America in 1910. Among the founders of this movement, which does much for physical fitness, aquatic training, and outdoor education, was George Pratt. He served as both national treasurer and chairman of the camping committee.[17]

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[12] "George Dupont Pratt," *The National Cyclopaedia of American Biography* (New York: James T. White & Company, 1941), XXIX, p. 143.

[13] Elmer L. Johnson, *A History of Physical Education in the Young Men's Christian Association* (Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1954), p. 297.

[14] *Ibid.*

[15] *Ibid.*

[16] E. Clark Wormán, *History of the Brooklyn and Queens Young Men's Christian Association 1853-1949* (New York: Association Press, 1952), p. 104.

[17] Document in the Pratt archives. YMCA Historical Library, New York.

In 1917 the Fisher Gymnasium at Silver Bay, New York, was financed. Silver Bay is the eastern YMCA conference center. George Pratt "made a *good* contribution"[18] to the campaign to build Fisher Gymnasium, which is still used today by such physical education groups as YMCA junior leaders clubs. Pratt's picture and that of Dr. Fisher are hung over the huge stone fireplace in the gymnasium.[19]

Two very significant articles were written by George Pratt when he was chairman of the Physical Department of the International Committee of YMCAs. One was entitled, "Increasing Physical Ability," and the other, "Conserving Nature to Conserve Men." The messages in both articles still have relevance today. In his article on conserving nature, George Pratt revealed his strong interest in the protection of natural resources for the betterment of mankind. Governor Whitman of New York appointed him Conservation Commissioner of New York State, a post he held from 1915 to 1921.

George Pratt's efforts in the field of conservation proved to be his most outstanding work for the betterment of his fellowman.[20] After he left the New York State Conservation Commission, he became president of the American Forestry Association and served in this capacity until his death in 1935.

An honorary M.A. degree was conferred on George Pratt by Amherst College in 1916.[21]

HERBERT LEE PRATT (1871-1945)
Amherst College, Class of 1895

Upon graduation from Amherst, Herbert Pratt joined the Standard Oil Company of New York. His career with this company included being vice president, president, and chairman of the board. As in the case of his brothers, Pratt was a director of other important corporations.

Relationship to Amherst College

The Pratt Health Cottage, built in 1897, was a combined gift of George, Herbert, and John Pratt.

Relationship to Springfield College

It was to Springfield College that Herbert Pratt directed large portions of his money and time. He served as a member of the board of trustees, chairman of the board, and vice president of Springfield College.

In 1910 Herbert Pratt gave $16,000 to this college to build the Pratt Athletic Field. President Doggett wrote of Pratt in 1943, "He has generously kept up the field from that day to the present time."[22] The field was dedicated in 1910 when Springfield College played the "Mass. Aggies"[23] in football. "On this occasion Mr. Pratt was present and dedicated the field to 'clean sport and all-around manhood,' as the bronze tablet near the main gate attests."[24]

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[18] Letter dated November 8, 1968, from G. Gordon Fisher to J. Edmund Welch.

[19] Letter dated September 3, 1968, from G. Gordon Fisher to J. Edmund Welch.

[20] "George Dupont Pratt," *op. cit.*

[21] *Ibid.*

[22] Doggett, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

Pratt Athletic Field had the following facilities: running track; football field; baseball diamond; seven tennis courts; eleven jumping pits, with spaces reserved for weight throwing; practice fields for football and baseball; and bleachers for 1000 spectators.[25] In 1911 Professor Elmer Berry wrote, "Crowning the whole field is a splendid solid concrete fence with its magnificent entrance and gateway."[26] Pratt Athletic Field is still the primary outdoor athletic facility of Springfield College today.

When the West Gymnasium of Springfield College was dedicated in 1912, William Orr, then deputy commissioner of education for Massachusetts, pointed out to Herbert Pratt the need for a natatorium.[27] Pratt responded by presenting the college $25,000 for a swimming pool. At Pratt's request, the pool was named in honor of Dr. James Huff McCurdy, the chairman of the physical education department whom Pratt admired greatly. "The formal presentation of the natatorium was made by the donor on April 29, 1913."[28]

The McCurdy Natatorium served Springfield College for over fifty years until it was replaced by the Art Linkletter Natatorium. Many outstanding swimming teachers and coaches were trained in this pool. Some of these include Carroll Bryant, former director of aquatics for the American Red Cross; Thomas Cureton; Charles Silvia; the late Fred Lanoue, who developed the drown-proofing technique while coach at Georgia Tech; and Edward Smyke, director of aquatics at Emory University. Cureton did much of his research for his Ph.D. degree in the McCurdy Natatorium. This research was a vital factor in the development of the National YMCA Aquatic Program. It was also at Springfield College that Cureton wrote his book, *Swimming and Diving.* Silvia did most of the research for his classic lifesaving book in this pool.[29] Many of the old Springfield alumni view with a tinge of sadness the fact that this famous pool has been filled in and is now a women's locker room!

Herbert Pratt served Springfield College in other important ways. He was chairman of the Committee on Physical Education, of which Dr. McCurdy was secretary. According to President Doggett, this was the only trustee committee relating to the various departments which functioned successfully, and he gave the credit for this to Pratt and McCurdy.[30] The spring meetings of the committee were held in New York City, and Pratt would entertain the committee for lunch at the Recess Club.[31] Once again, Doggett attested to Pratt's contributions when he wrote, "The recognition that these meetings gave to the college both encouraged and stimulated us."[32]

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[23] *Ibid.*

[24] *Ibid.*

[25] Elmer Berry, "The Pratt Athletic Field," *The Association Seminar* (June, 1911), pp. 364 and 378.

[26] *Ibid.*, p. 379.

[27] Doggett, *op. cit.*, p. 167.

[28] *Ibid.*

[29] Letter dated December 13, 1968, from Charles E. Silvia to J. Edmund Welch.

[30] Doggett, *op. cit.*, p. 136.

Although the capital funds drive by Springfield College in the 1920's was not directly related to physical education, Herbert Pratt's role was so important that it needs to be recognized. Pratt was the national chairman of this drive which began in 1912 but had to be delayed because of World War I. Of the total goal of $2,500,000, Herbert Pratt gave $161,000; he raised $75,000 from George, Frederic, and Harold Pratt; and he persuaded John D. Rockefeller to donate $350,000 at a time when the drive was lagging and needed the stimulus of another large gift.[33] The campaign reached its goal and a most important achievement it proved to be " . . . it may be said with confidence that the securing of this Expansion Fund assured the perpetuity of Springfield College and saved it from the eclipse during the depression that followed."[34]

Relationship to the YMCA Movement

Since Springfield College is one of two main institutions in this country recognized as having special curricula for the preparation of YMCA professional leaders, it is obvious that Herbert Pratt made tremendous contributions to YMCA physical education. Graduates of Springfield have gone out to become physical directors all over the world.

In 1936 Herbert Pratt, James H. Post, and John D. Rockefeller provided President and Mrs. Doggett a trip around the world to visit Springfield College alumni. They visited 110 alumni in 26 countries.[35] Many of these were YMCA professional leaders, some of whom were physical directors.

Another relationship Herbert Pratt had to the YMCA Movement was in his service to the Athletic League. He was chairman of this national organization in 1919 and 1920.[36]

Relationship to the United States Volleyball Association

Herbert Pratt was related to the U.S. Volleyball Association from its inception in 1928.[37] He served on the USVBA board of directors for at least ten years and probably longer.[38] He was best known among volleyball players and officials for having donated two beautiful, rotating trophies for the winner of the National Open Volleyball Championship.

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[31] *Ibid.*, p. 202.

[32] *Ibid.*

[33] *Ibid.*, pp. 214-215.

[34] *Ibid.*, p. 217.

[35] *Ibid.*, p. 256.

[36] Document in the YMCA Historical Library, New York.

[37] "Herbert Lee Pratt," *1946 Official Volleyball Guide*, United States Volleyball Association, p. 11.

[38] Editions of *Official Volleyball Guide* from 1935 through 1946.

Pratt donated the first trophy in 1928. This trophy was won three times by the Houston, Texas, YMCA and was thereby retired and became the permanent property of this organization.[39] From the records in the *Official Volleyball Guide,* one would assume that Houston also retired the second trophy donated by Pratt, but this investigator has not been able to substantiate this deduction.

After Pratt's death in 1945, the *Official Volleyball Guide* carried a one-page tribute to him. Part of the tribute read as follows:

> In the passing of Herbert L. Pratt the United States Volley Ball Association has lost a good friend and ardent supporter. Always active in amateur sports he manifested a keen interest in volleyball at a time in its history when his efforts counted for much.[40]

Herbert L. Pratt was awarded an honorary M.P.E. degree by Springfield College in 1918.[41] Twelve years later Springfield recognized his service again by bestowing upon him an honorary P.E.D. degree.[42] In 1935 he was the recipient of a medal from Amherst College for distinctive service.[43]

JOHN TEELE PRATT (1873-1927)
Amherst College, Class of 1896

John T. Pratt received his law degree from Harvard University and practiced law in New York City. He had extensive business interests, as he was a director, trustee, or member of the board of managers of over a dozen corporations. Like his father and brothers, John Pratt was a philanthropist, but he directed few of his resources to physical education programs. He achieved a national reputation as chairman of the National Budget Committee.

> It was due in great measure to his untiring efforts and unfailing idealism that the Federal budget was adopted as an integral part of the government fiscal system in 1921.[44]

Relationship to Amherst College

John Pratt joined with his brothers, George and Herbert, in providing the money to build and endow the Pratt Health Cottage which served as the college infirmary.

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[39] *1940 Official Volleyball Guide,* United States Volleyball Association, p. 2.

[40] "Herbert Lee Pratt," *op. cit.*

[41] *Springfield College Alumni Directory* (Springfield, Massachusetts: Springfield College Alumni Association, 1965), p. XXII.

[42] "Herbert Lee Pratt," *Amherst College Biographical Record* (Amherst, Massachusetts: The Trustees of Amherst College, 1963), p. 74.

[43] "Herbert Lee Pratt," *The National Cyclopaedia of American Biography* (New York: James T. White & Company, 1947), XXXIII, p. 448.

[44] "John Teele Pratt," *The National Cyclopaedia of American Biography* (New York: James T. White & Company, 1931), XXI, p. 304.

HAROLD IRVING PRATT (1877-1939)
Amherst College, Class of 1900

Harold I. Pratt was the last of the six sons of Charles Pratt. He became the managing partner of Charles Pratt & Company in 1907, and he held this position until his death in 1939. As such, Harold Pratt was banker, trustee, and financial adviser of the Charles Pratt estate.

> In the handling of the vast resources of the estate, he manifested rare ability as an investment banker and his exceptional success in its administration was a notable example of shrewdness and sound business judgment.[45]

Harold Pratt was a director of numerous corporations, and his philanthropic work was widespread.

Relationship to Amherst College

In 1904 Harold I. Pratt and Mortimer L. Schiff proposed to the trustees that they be allowed to make a $50,000 addition to Pratt Gymnasium. The addition was to house a swimming pool, seventy-five feet long and twenty-two feet wide, and four squash courts. This money would also provide a new heating plant for the entire building. The trustees immediately accepted this generous offer of the two young alumni, and by 1905 Dr. Edward Hitchcock had a total physical education facility which could be matched by few other colleges in America.[46]

The swimming pool, which was Harold Pratt's gift, served the college until 1937. In 1936 Harold Pratt indicated that he wished to give the college a new pool. His gift of $50,000 was supplemented by a similar gift by Herbert Pratt, by the bequest of Charles M., and by gifts from Mrs. Charles M., Frederic, and Richardson. With the approval of the donors, the championship pool was named the Harold I. Pratt Pool, and it became a vital part of the new physical education facilities at Amherst. The pool was opened in 1937, while Alumni Gymnasium was first used in 1936.[47]

Relationship to the YMCA Movement

Harold Pratt was a director of the New York City YMCA and a trustee of the International Committee of YMCAs. He was a liberal contributor to YMCA building funds and to Springfield College.[48]

CONCLUSION

The widespread contributions of the Pratt family are sufficient to inspire every professional in the field of physical education. To have one family influence this field in such an extensive manner is indeed a unique phenomenon.

Other than receiving inspiration over the fact that all of us are debtors to the Pratts, how can we profit from a study of their lives? The former president of Amherst College, Stanley King, credited Edward Hitchcock as being one of the most adept money raisers in the history of that college. "Old Doc" Hitchcock, as he was dubbed by his students, never relied completely on his presidents to raise money for the Amherst College physical education program. He challenged those alumni who he thought could build facilities for and add equipment to his program. Many times we bemoan the fact that our facilities are inadequate. Whether we are in public or private colleges, we could be much more constructive by going out and challenging those with means to support our program, just as Hitchcock inspired the Pratts and others to do.

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[45] "Harold Irving Pratt," *The National Cyclopaedia of American Biography* (New York: James T. White & Company, 1941), XXIX, p. 8.

[46] King, *op. cit.*, pp. 126-128.

[47] *Ibid.*, pp. 236-237.

[48] "Harold Irving Pratt," *op. cit.*, p. 9.

Of even more importance, we see the great positive influence that physical educators can have on their students and on others associated with college programs. Hitchcock urged one of his undergraduate students to seek on his own the funds to build the first athletic field for Amherst College. That young student contacted Charles Pratt, and this led to the first of many contributions of the Pratts to physical education. The six Pratt sons were so profoundly touched by their physical education teacher, Edward Hitchcock, that they all gave significant gifts to the Amherst physical education program.

William G. Anderson sought the cooperation of Charles Pratt when he decided to found a professional society. This relationship between Anderson and the elder Pratt was a factor in the establishment of our professional organization, the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. Frederic Pratt had such a satisfying relationship with Luther H. Gulick that he led Gulick into a new channel for the expression of his many talents. James Huff McCurdy attracted the admiration of Herbert Pratt, and this led Pratt to increase his gifts of both time and money to Springfield College. George J. Fisher enlisted the aid of George Pratt in promoting YMCA physical education programs.

Through these various relationships of one physical educator to one layman, it becomes quite evident that each of us has a tremendous opportunity for service to others. Within each of us is the power to attract men who can broaden the base of physical education services to our students and our communities.

Lastly, let us remember the personal relationship Edward Hitchcock had to each of the Pratt brothers and to every one of his students. No amount of persuasion on Hitchcock's part could have elicited funds from the Pratt brothers unless they had admired their former teacher. Hitchcock was a friend of his students. He did not use students; he served them.

Professor Thomas McDonough, a past president of the National College Physical Education Association for Men, directed a nationally-recognized physical education program at Emory University. He used to tell his staff every year, "Our purpose in being here is to help the students." We are not in physical education for our own aggrandizement, as tempting as this may be. If we meet our students on a personal basis, if we make a second effort to satisfy their needs, then we do not have to be concerned about the future of our profession. Other Pratts will step forward to assist us in our goal of creating a healthier society.

Charles Harold McCloy: His Professional Preparation and Early Work Experiences*

James R. Little
University of Hawaii

Introduction

This presentation is a portion of a biographic description of the life of Charles Harold McCloy with emphasis on his personal characteristics, professional career, apparent contributions to and impact on the physical education profession. The following information concerning McCloy's professional preparation and early work experiences is a sequel to the paper presented at the 68th Annual Meeting of the NCPEAM by the author.

Marietta College, Ph.B., 1907

In the fall of 1904, McCloy was eighteen years old when he entered Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio. The Marietta College catalogues show that he was a freshman in 1904-5, a sophomore in 1905-6, a senior in 1906-7, and that he was graduated magna cum laude in 1907. He completed the curriculum designated as the "Latin Scientific Course" and graduated with a Bachelor of Philosophy degree, having completed the requirements in three years. McCloy was elected to membership in Phi Beta Kappa at Marietta College in 1907.

McCloy attended the Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education in 1905, 1906, and 1907, and he received the Certificate of the school of 1907. Mrs. T. Gale Sinclair, the Marietta College Registrar, stated, "It is entirely possible that these credits enabled him to accelerate his program. Unfortunately, no record of such work is on file here.

The record of courses taken by McCloy at Marietta College for his Bachelor of Philosophy degree is listed in Table I, page 97. Marietta College was on a trimester schedule with two credit hours given for each course taken during the trimester. McCloy earned 118 credit hours and a general average of 91.52 per cent.

Nearly fifty years later, McCloy was quoted as quickly pointing out that "the broad liberal arts training I had has been a most valuable part of my education." McCloy commented further on the strengths and weaknesses of his undergraduate training. He believed that his study of Latin and other foreign languages gave him a linguistic background that later helped him to master the Chinese language. He wished that he might also have had two years of Greek and at least one more year of French. In his opinion this knowledge of languages combined with his rhetoric training in English gave him a sound basis for writing clearly.

McCloy felt that his college sociology gave him a point of view that proved exceedingly valuable in his first position as a physical director with the Young Men's Christian Association in Danville, Virginia. This experience in Danville laid the groundwork for success in later positions that involved teacher training.

The records in the Alumni Office of Marietta College reveal that McCloy was captain and manager of the track-and-field team during his freshman year, and the manager of this team during his sophomore year.

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*This paper is a portion of a study that served as a Ph.D. dissertation at the University of Iowa. A bibliography may be obtained from the author upon request.

Near the end of McCloy's freshman year at Marietta College, the professor of classical languages, who was also head of physical education, resigned his position in order to do graduate study at Johns Hopkins University. The college administration did not want to employ a full-time instructor of physical education and was unable to secure a part-time instructor who could teach the other subjects included with the position. Because of these circumstances, McCloy applied for the position of teaching physical education to the male students of the academy and the college. A salary of $150.00 a year was requested because this amount would pay the cost of board, room, tuition, and travel expenses to the Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education for the would-be physical educator. It was the opinion of some of the college officials that McCloy might not be able to maintain adequate discipline with the students who were of his own age. After many talks with professors, trustees, and the president of the college, McCloy was given the position.

Thus in the fall of 1905 when he was a nineteen-year-old sophomore, McCloy began teaching physical education at Marietta College. McCloy recalled:

> While I was teaching my first year, I was actually being paid as janitor of the gymnasium, so that I was still, technically, an amateur! (I did the janitor work, too!) I competed that year, but when they raised me to $200 the next year, I became a professional! I still kept on coaching.

In January of 1907, a student publication, the ***Marietta College Olio***, contained an article written by McCloy entitled "The Place of Physical Training in the Colleges." This article reflected the influence of two aspects of the training of the twenty-year-old student who was the physical education instructor: (1) The professional training in physical education that he received at the Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education and (2) the rhetoric training he received at the Marietta Academy and College. In this article, which was his first to appear in print, McCloy expressed his philosophy of physical education and included specific suggestions for program objectives in physical education.

Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education: Certificate, 1907

McCloy enrolled in the Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education in 1905 after completing his freshman year at Marietta College and in anticipation of being the instructor of physical education for men at Marietta College in the fall of 1905. Dudley A. Sargent was the Director of the Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education. Courses at this school were taught by devotees of the various "systems" of physical training then in vogue. McCloy stated later that "we synthesized them as we taught."

The records available at the Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education do not include information concerning the program prior to 1906. However, McCloy has written that in 1905 he was taught Swedish gymnastics by Hartving Nissen and the Gilbert system of dance by Gilbert and instructors from his school. Other activities which were reported by McCloy as part of this Harvard University summer program but which do not appear on the available records include tract-and-field athletics, swimming, and a limited amount of training in basketball, baseball, and folk dance. Folk dance was taught by Elizabeth Burchenal, a pioneer in the United States in that field.

The record of courses taken by McCloy at the Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education in 1906 and 1907 appears in Table II, page 98.

Yankton College: Director of Physical Training for Young Men and Instructor in Biology, 1907-8

In the fall of 1907 McCloy assumed the duties of his first full-time teaching position at Yankton College, Yankton, South Dakota. In 1907 Yankton had a population of about two thousand. Yankton College, which was supported by the Congregational Church had an enrollment of 70 students and the academy, which was incorporated with the college, had 110 students.

The records of the Executive Committee and Faculty of Yankton College do not mention McCloy's specific salary. Based on his predecessor's salary of $750 and the fact that full professors received $1,000 per year, it is estimated that McCloy was paid about $750-$800 for his first year of teaching and coaching.

McCloy coached football, basketball, cross country, track and field, and baseball. All of the college and academy boys were eligible for competition in athletics.

Some indications of the aspirations McCloy held in his first teaching position are reflected in the recollections of three of his student-athletes of Yankton College. "There was something about Coach McCloy that was admirable," wrote Henry A. Gunderson, "and I think it was his grit and determination." "I remember Mr. McCloy quite well," recalled Ralph Swanson, an attorney. "He was always a gentleman and very interesting in his work, and inspired the athletes with his enthusiasm. He was respected and liked by all, as I remember him."

Gerald M. Stevenson was a student-athlete who knew McCloy well at Yankton College and who was also in contact with McCloy frequently in later years. Stevenson expressed the belief that:

> From the start he had a goal, the ambition and determination to go places. He was a hard worker, and went far beyond the call of duty to make good, be a good sport and get along with students and faculty in spite of his handicaps of size and youth. Almost all the men on his teams were larger than he — and many were older.
>
> He was serious minded but always happy, "peppy" and approachable, and anxious to give help or advice. He was the butt of many practical jokes but took all in good humor trying hard to be a regular guy and be accepted and respected. Always laugh-provoking was his stunt of hanging by one hand, scratching his side with the other, knees and hips flexed and abducted, grinning as he peered out through his myopic lenses. Nothing of the monkey look was lacking except the tail.

Carl Youngworth, of Yankton College, reported that McCloy's keen knowledge of the game provided the groundwork for the future success of the team, which did include the football championship in 1908. Youngworth expressed the belief that McCloy influenced the game of football in that part of the Midwest around Yankton by exhibiting the first positive use of the forward pass as an offensive weapon, and by such innovations as split formations and complicated signals. According to Youngworth, some of the tactics employed by McCloy were "too much" for some of his boys.

McCloy was responsible for reactivating the sport of basketball after a three-year lapse. It was a rather dismal season until the last game, which Yankton College won over the University of South Dakota. "This was considered a great victory," explained Carl Youngworth, "as it was won at the University, something that did not happen too often."

McCloy revived another dormant sport at Yankton College when he fielded a cross-country team. The University of South Dakota defeated Yankton College by the score of 20-35 in the only cross-country meet recorded that year. McCloy used an unusual technique to motivate his cross-country athletes to practice. Knowing that the boys would prefer to be spending their time with the girls, McCloy encouraged the girls to go along with the boys by having the girls ride their bicycles along the roadways as the boys ran. Thus, McCloy was able to get the cross-country athletes to do much more work than would ordinarily have been the case.

In January, McCloy started a baseball class and winter workouts for those interested in playing on the Yankton College baseball team. "That spring Coach McCloy was faced with no experienced pitchers," recalled Stevenson. "He selected two men raw from the farm, and with no experience except "cow pasture" baseball. He taught them the basics and they developed into winning pitchers for their following years of competition."

It was during the Christmas vacation of the school year 1907-8 that McCloy returned to Marietta, Ohio and married his high school and Marietta College classmate, Miss Anna Florence Fisher. The ceremony was performed at the home of the bride's parents, the Reverend and Mrs. George Fisher of Marietta, Ohio, on December 20, 1907.

McCloy had several conflicts with Professor Daily, director of the Conservatory of Music. One of the disagreements erupted in a faculty meeting in which McCloy called the college president a "damned fool," for siding with Professor Daily. This, according to McCloy, was an error and the break was considered to be a serious one. At the end of the school year McCloy was informed by the president that he would not be re-employed. "In other words, let's face facts," wrote McCloy about fifty years later. "I was fired!"

Young Men's Christian Association of Danville, Virginia: Physical Director, 1908-11

McCloy applied for employment with the Young Men's Christian Associations, and he hoped to find a position in one of their colleges. He did not want a position in a local Young Men's Christian Association because he felt such a position would involve too much night work. However, the Young Men's Christian Association in Danville, Virginia offered the twenty-two year old McCloy the position of Physical Director. Having been fired and without employment for over a month, McCloy accepted this position and began his duties October 1, 1908. "For once, I had to make my customers like it," McCloy remembered, "or they wouldn't come to my class."

In addition to being Physical Director for the Young Men's Christian Association, McCloy was also Honorary Supervisor of Physical Education for the Danville Public Schools. Since a large portion of the physical training program of this Young Men's Christian Association was conducted during the late afternoon and evenings, he worked three mornings a week in the public schools, both Negro and white. Here he demonstrated the drills and supervised the teachers as they put into practice a series of drills written by McCloy.

McCloy described the purposes, techniques, effectiveness, and value of his public school work in an article entitled "Physical Training Extension in the Public Schools."

McCloy believed that the elementary-school child was at a propitious age at which to begin a program of activities that would insure the proper physical growth and development of the child.

> This need of exercise is beginning to be understood by even the most remote of the school authorities, but they are slow in responding to their knowledge. The teachers, as a rule, are not trained in physical education, and if they attempt anything of the sort, it is usually a series of aimless arm motions, which, though better than nothing, do not at all meet the need. Here is where the Association has a great opportunity. It is a specialist in just that field that is needed in the schools; and the school will generally welcome assistance in this problem that is perplexing them. This is helpful both to the school and to the Association, as well as to the child.

Another article by McCloy, entitled "Medical Inspection of Schools in a Small Southern City," dealt with the program of medical inspection that was installed in 1909 in the public schools of Danville, Virginia. From time to time, local physicians had advocated a medical inspection program in the schools but the school board was reluctant to innovate and rejected the idea. Because the physicians had failed before, the Young Men's Christian Association seemed to be the best agency to resubmit the proposal.

A total of 1,676 children were examined for visual, hearing, nose and throat, and dental defects. The findings of the medical inspectors were used to show relationships between academic performance and the various physical defects. While the physicians were satisfied with a medical inspection which would identify defects that could be treated or remedied clinically, McCloy examined the data to find implications related to the school program. He presented the findings to the local school board and informed them of specific needs in the program.

An early example of innovation by McCloy is found in his development of an outdoor game which he named "Goal Ball." The tactics and skills of the game were described as being largely like those of basketball, soccer, and lacrosse. The ball used in the game was the regular soccer ball. The game required a total of six officials – a referee, an umpire, two linesmen, a time keeper, and a scorer. An elaborate description of the playing field, rules, scoring, and general conduct of the game appears in an article entitled "Goal Ball" published in *Physical Training*.

McCloy later evaluated his Danville experience and said he never regretted his decision to work for the Young Men's Christian Association because (1) he gained valuable experience in supervisory work with the public school teachers, (2) he worked for the first time with people of varying social strata, and (3) he gained experience in training and using local leaders to carry out his program plans when he opened an extension Young Men's Christian Association in a neighboring village.

The first of McCloy's five children, Emma, was born on February 25, 1910, while the McCloys were living in Danville.

Marietta College: Master of Arts, 1910

McCloy received his Master of Arts degree in absentia from Marietta College in June, 1910, while he was employed by the Young Men's Christian Association in Danville, Virginia.

A letter of October 3, 1927, written by Dean D.T. Schoonover of Marietta College, states that "Unfortunately in those days no record was ever kept of the work done for the Master of Arts degree. The work was usually taken as a non-resident student under the direction of some professor."

The only record of the Masters degree study of McCloy was found in this autobiographical writing:

> At the time I graduated it was possible to get an M.A. 'in absentia.' One had to study at least two years . . . I took as my major subject, Psychology of Adolescence, and the other, Human Physiology. I used Howell's textbook on Physiology, and the two large volumes of the Psychology of Adolescence by G. Stanley Hall. My thesis was done in the field of Social Economy, where I made a study of the standards of living of Negroes in Virginia.

The Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, 1911-3

After three years as the Physical Director of the Danville, Virginia Young Men's Christian Association, McCloy believed that he needed additional graduate training. Rather than accepting an offer of another Young Men's Christian Association position which offered an advancement in salary, he chose to study medicine at The Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine. McCloy chose graduate work in medicine "because one could not obtain a Ph.D. in physical education at that time."

The McCloys moved to Baltimore, Maryland where, as shown by the records at The Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, he enrolled as a medical student in October, 1911. McCloy completed the following courses during his enrollment: Histology, Bacteriology, Anatomy, Physiology, Pathology, Pharmacology, Physiological Chemistry. The Registrar was unable to provide the actual grades earned by McCloy in the courses he completed, but reported that: "He performed quite creditably. Had he remained in school and continued to perform at the same level, I feel certain he would have graduated within the upper third of his class."

According to McCloy's daughter Emma, he chose courses at the medical school on the basis of their contribution to his understanding of the adaptations made by the human body to exercise and physical health.

While at The Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, McCloy had two part-time jobs. One was as laboratory demonstrator in histology in the medical school, and the other was with the Public Athletic League of Baltimore.

The Public Athletic League was a department of the Social Service Corporation of Baltimore, Maryland. The second report of the Social Service Corporation of 1912-1913 shows that McCloy was employed by the Public Athletic League as a leader in both indoor and outdoor athletics. He was assigned to St. Paul's Guild House in the indoor program and to Easterwood Park in the outdoor program. His salary was estimated by H. S. Callowhill to be from one and one-half to two dollars for a three-hour session.

The second of McCloy's five children, William Ashby, was born on January 2, 1913, while the McCloys were living in Baltimore.

Table I

The Undergrad[illegible] Record of Courses with Letter Grades and Percent[illegible] H. McCloy at Marietta College, 1905-7

Courses	1st Term	2nd Term	3rd Term	Credit Hours
		FRESHMAN YEAR, 1904-5		
Latin	A – 94.94%	A – 92.91%	A – 93.92%	6
German	B – 88.88%	A – 91.94%	A – 90.91%	6
Mathematics	B – 90.86%	A – 95.95%	A – 96.94%	6
Chemistry	A – 90.91%	A – 90.90%	A – 90.90%	6
Biology	A – 92.95%	A – 92.94%	A – 89.93%	6
English	A – 98.95%	A – 98.98%	A – 98.98%	6
Bible	A – 96.96%			2
		SOPHOMORE YEAR, 1905-6		
Latin	B – 89.80%	A – 91.95%	A – 93.91%	6
French	B – 88.83%	C – 83.70%	A – 89.90%	6
Philosophy II	A – 93.00%	A – 93.00%	A – 93.00%	6
Chemistry II	A – 90.00%	A – 95.00%	A – 96.97%	6
Biology	A – 92.92%	A – 92.92%		4
English	A – 98.98%	A – 98.98%	A – 95.98%	6
Elocution			B – 83.00%	2
		JUNIOR AND SENIOR YEAR, 1906-7		
German V	A – 91.99%	A – 90.00%	A – 90.00%	6
French II	A – 90.00%			2
Philosophy I	Cr.	Cr.	Cr.	6
Chemistry IV	A – 80.95%	A – 90.00%	B – 85.00%	6
Biology	A – 92.92%	A – 92.92%	A – 94.95%	6
Organic Chemistry	A – 97.00%		A – 93.00%	4
Sociology	B – 80.00%	B – 89.00%	A – 91.00%	6
Biology III	A – 92.92%	A – 92.00%	A – complete	6
Elocution			A – 94.00%	2
General Average:	91.52%		Total Credit Hours	118

Table II

The Record of Courses with Information about the Instructors of C.H. McCloy at the Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education, 1906-7

Course Title	*Instructor*
1906	
Anthropometry	Dudley A. Sargent, A.M., M.D., S.D. Director of the Hemenway Gymnasium and Harvard University Summer School of Physical Education Cambridge, Massachusetts
Apparatus	(No instructor listed)
Applied Anatomy	Dudley A. Sargent (See above)
Boxing	J. Leonard Mason Instructor in Physical Training University of Pennsylvania Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Corrective Gymnastics	Dudley A. Sargent (See above)
Dancing	(No instructor listed)
Fencing	Charles L. Ranlett Watertown, Massachusetts
Figure Marching	Christian Eberhard Instructor in Gymnastics Boston Athletic Association Boston, Massachusetts
Games	Louis Raymond Burnett Student Assistant
Indian Clubs	Jennie Blanche Wilson Superintendent and Instructor Sargent's Normal School Cambridge, Massachusetts
Marching Tactics	Carl L. Schrader Instructor in Gymnastics Harvard University and Sargent's Normal School Cambridge, Massachusetts
Massage	Marian Katheryn Varian Student Assistant
Physiology of Exercise	James H. McCurdy, M.D. Instructor in Physiology YMCA Training School Springfield, Massachusetts

Table II (Continued)

Course Title	*Instructor*
Tumbling	Edward Charles Delaporte Student Assistant
Wands	Carl L. Schrader (See above)
Wrestling	J. Leonard Mason (See above)
1907	
Boxing	J. Leonard Mason (See above)
Fencing	Francis Dohs Physical Instructor Ethical Culture School New York City, New York
First Aid	Marshall H. Bailey Medical Visitor Harvard University Cambridge, Massachusetts
Football	Howard R. Reiter, A.B., A.M. Physical Director Wesleyan University Middletown, Connecticut
Indian Clubs	Charles B. Lewis Physical Director Tufts College Medford, Massachusetts
Medical Gymnastics	Mary Rees Mulliner Specialist, Medical Gymnastics Boston, Massachusetts
Organization, Construction and Equipment	James H. McCurdy (See above)
Physical Diagnosis	James H. McCurdy (See above)
Tennis	Mr. Schreiner (No further information)
Tumbling	Mr. Schreiner (See above)
Wrestling	J. Leonard Mason (See above)

Self-Concept, Aspiration Level, and Performance of Competitive Collegiate Golfers *

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This study was designed to investigate the relationship between self-concept, aspiration level, and performance of competitive collegiate golfers. (In this case the team involved, the University of Florida, was both the Southeastern Conference and National Collegiate Athletic Association champion for 1968.)

Need for the Study

Physical performance can be measured readily but the psychological factors influencing such performance is usually difficult to determine. In athletics we know that some individuals perform better under the stress of competition than do others. If coaches understood this phenomena better, they could become more successful.

There have been a few studies dealing with self-concept and physical performance but not in the area of athletics. Aspiration level studies have been conducted mainly with simple motor tasks. In general, then, the area of athletic performance and its relationship to self-concept and aspiration level represents a vital need for research.

Review of Literature

Self-Concept

Although there have been various studies showing a positive relationship between self-concept and academic achievement, until recent years there has been a lack of data regarding physical performance and self-concept. Clifton and Smith[1] have developed their own perception check list regarding bodily movements. In this study viewers saw loop films of themselves – walking, running, catching, throwing, and jumping. The results suggest that the movement self-concept changes positively after viewing and does so significantly in terms of throwing. Johnson[2] reported changes that occurred to children with emotional disturbances, brain damage, or mental retardation that had been referred to a physical development clinic. The findings revealed significant changes in (a) decrease in self-self-ideal

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*Appreciation is expressed to Coach Bernays Bishop and members of the University of Florida Golf Team for their cooperation in making this study possible.

[1] M. Clifton and H. Smith, "Viewing Oneself Performing Selected Motor Skills and Its Effect Upon Expressed Concept of Self in Performance," *Research Quarterly*, (33:369-75, 1962).

[2] W. R. Johnson, B. Fritz, and J. Johnson, "Changes in Self-Concept During a Physical Development Program," *Research Quarterly*, (39:560-565, 1968).

discrepancy in height, (b) increase in willingness to be with larger groups of children, (c) increase in willingness to be near the clinician, and (d) increase in desire (self-ideal) to be near the father. Felker[3] found differences in self-concept as related to body build and father's interest in sports among sixth grade boys but there were no significant differences in ninth grade boys. He suggests that different sources of status and self-esteem are operating in the two age groups. Zion,[4] after studying 200 college freshman women, concluded that the security one has in one's body is related to the security with which one faces oneself and the world. Yeatts and Gordon[5], in investigating self-image and physical fitness as measured by the AAHPER test, found that seventh graders who had previously experienced an elementary physical education program under the supervision of a specialist scored higher on both physical fitness and self-image than those with no previous experience with a specialist.

Aspiration Level

Up until recent years most of the research regarding aspiration level have been psychological studies dealing with mental tasks or simple motor manipulative tasks such as card sorting, quoit throwing, and groove-stick manipulation.

Clarke and Clarke[6], in studying aspiration level and grip strength of nine year old boys, found that those boys with high positive aspirations were physically superior in size and strength to those with neutral or negative discrepancies between performance and expectations.

Schiltz and Levitt[7] studied fifth and sixth grade boys to see if they differed under prearranged conditions of failure of simple motor tasks (moving small blocks from one board to another). The investigators found aspiration levels lowered significantly over three trials. Additionally high skilled subjects expressed higher aspiration levels than did low skilled subjects. Strong[8], in determining the effect of six different motivating conditions on performance of sixth grade children on physical fitness tests found those conditions most effective were: (1) setting own goals, and (2) team competition. These conditions were better than: competition versus self, competition to set records, competition against someone of equal ability, and competition against someone of marked different ability.

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[3] D. Felker, "Relationship Between Self-Concept, Body-Build, and Perception of Father's Interest in Sports in Boys," *Research Quarterly,* (39:513-517, 1968).

[4] L. Zion, "Body Concept as it Relates to Self-Concept," *Research Quarterly,* (36:490-495, 1965).

[5] P. Yeatts and I. Gordon, "Effects of Physical Education Taught by a Specialist on Physical Fitness and Self-Image," *Research Quarterly,* (39:366-70, 1968).

[6] H. Clarke and D. Clarke, "Relationship Between Level of Aspiration and Selected Physical Factors of Boys Aged Nine Years," *Research Quarterly,* (32:12-19, 1961).

[7] J. Schiltz and S. Levitt, "Levels of Aspiration of High and Low Skilled Boys," *Research Quarterly,* (39:696-70, 1968).

[8] C. Strong, "Motivation Related to Performance of Physical Fitness Tests," *Research Quarterly,* (34:497-507, 1963).

Smith[9] conducted the only research involving athletics, about two decades ago. He interviewed football players prior to each game and asked them to predict playing time without knowledge of their playing time for previous games. He concluded that (1) successful players raise their aspiration level and unsuccessful players lower theirs and (2) unsuccessful players tend to escape by overt action which removes them from the situation.

Research Procedure

Self-Concept

The measure used to determine self-concept was the Semantic Differential. It was selected because it was objective and yielded a raw score which could be utilized for comparative purposes. Furthermore it was easily administered and scored. It is a highly generalizable technique of measurement which must be adapted to each research problem to which it is applied. There are no standard concepts or scales as those used depend upon the purposes of the research.

This particular Semantic Differential measured the self-report image of the competitive golfer and was designed by the investigators. It employed the use of fourteen different but related ideas or concepts on a continuum from one positive extreme to the opposing one with five intervening graduations. Each graduation was assigned a numerical value from 1 through 7 from the most positive selection to the most negative one respectively. Each subject selected a position from each idea item which best reflected his position as he viewed himself as a competitive golfer. The scale could normally be completed within ten minutes. Positive and negative selection positioning on the scale were randomly assigned to reduce the probability of one item selection influencing another because of pattern.

A self-report index was assigned each subject as a result of the Semantic Differential scale. The mean score for the fourteen items was calculated to determine the self-report index. An index of 1 represented the best possible score, and theoretically the most positive self-image as a competitive golfer.

The Semantic Differential was administered to the University of Florida Golf squad prior to the beginning of the competitive season by the investigators. The nature and purpose of the instrument was carefully explained verbally and in writing. A total of seventeen squad members participated in the study.

Aspiration Level

Before each of the ten (dual and tournament) matches each team member was asked to privately predict his score for that event. In the case of the tournaments the predictions were made on a round-by-round basis. A total of 136 predictions were made.

Additionally the Golf team coach privately predicted the performance score of each of the team members before each of the ten matches. In the case of the tournaments these were made on a round by round basis. The purpose of this phase of the study was to determine the relationship of the accuracy of the coach's predictions to those of his players and to player performance.

Performance

The actual score made by each golfer during each round of each match served as the performance measure. Normally each golfer keeps the score of his opponent and then certifies the accuracy of his own score by signing the scorecard kept by his opponent. All NCAA sanctioned golf is scored by this method.

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[9] C. Smith, "Influence of Athletic Success and Failure on the Level of Aspiration," *Research Quarterly*, (20:196-208, 1949).

Results

The University of Florida Computer Center performed the statistical treatment of the data. Correlations of the following variables with one another were made: Self-report index, player prediction, performance, coach's prediction. The following relationships were statistically significant at the .01 per cent level:

Player prediction versus performance	(r = .9953)
Coach's prediction versus performance	(r = .9973)
Coach's prediction versus player prediction	(r = .9984)

The relationship of self-concept (as measured by the Semantic Differential) with aspiration level and performance was not statistically significant.

Data from the top three players involving twenty comparisons each of aspiration and performance revealed only four situations where performances were better than aspirations and four situations where aspiration and performance were exactly the same. Thus, in 52 out of 60 situations involving the best players aspiration level was higher than performance level, indicating strongly that continual failure of aspiration to reach or exceed performance (although the margin of difference was slight) did not deter these skilled performers from continually maintaining a high aspiration level.

Conclusions and Discussion

Within the confines of this study involving the University of Florida Golf team the following conclusions can be drawn:

1) The self-concept of competitive collegiate golfers, as measured by the Semantic Differential, is not related to aspiration level and performance.

   While one might hypothesize that a positive self-concept exists and is related to aspiration level among collegiate golfers inasmuch as their aspiration level was high all season and their performance was of championship caliber, the use of the Semantic Differential as a measurement of self-concept does not support this belief.

2) Constant evaluation of performance provides for accuracy in predicting success.

   Competitive golfers as a group were able to accurately predict their performance. The University of Florida golfers kept daily records of their practice performances and this enabled them to view themselves realistically. The actual competitive schedule had little effect upon aspiration and subsequent performance as the players were in the habit of playing against a standard (par). Thus in the actual competition this standard remained the opposition rather than another player.

   The implication for athletic success lies in the necessity for continual evaluation of performance so that expectations (based upon prior success) and performance are rather similar.

3) Constant evaluation of player performance by the coach enables him to know aspirations and performance levels as well as the players themselves.

   The University of Florida golf coach had access to the daily performance records and additionally was in constant face-to-face contact with his players; thus he became keenly aware of their abilities.

   The implications for coaching success seem to be obvious: The coach must constantly evaluate player performance so that he can know what type of performance to reasonably expect in competition.

4) Aspiration levels of skilled performers during competition are high.

   The previous experience of highly skilled golfers (versus a standard of par) enables them to keep aspirations high. The competitive situation apparently has little effect upon performance as related to practice situations. In other words, they expect to perform as well in competition as they have in practice because they have been successful in practice.

5) Aspiration levels remain high among skilled performers in spite of lack of complete success in meeting stated aspirations.

This substantiates findings of previous research. Although the competitive golfer does not exactly reach his expectations, he succeeds well enough to be reasonably satisfied with a good but not perfect performance. Previous experience helps him realize that it is extremely difficult to constantly maintain high level performance. However, his ego is always bolstered by the memory of prior outstanding scores and thus he believes he can repeat such performances. This, then, keeps his aspiration level high.

The Development and Discriminant Analysis of Swimming Profiles of College Men

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Introduction

Readily apparent to aquatic instructors is the scarcity of research conducted in the area of performance tests for swimming ability below the competitive level. In most class situations, instructors have had to rely upon tests, intuitively developed and of questionable validity and reliability, for grouping students and for assessing achievement.

The first work of any consequence in testing for swimming ability was done at Springfield College in the 1930's[1]. In later studies Hewitt published achievement scales developed for populations of adult men[2], high school boys[3], and college men[4].

The Hewitt scale for college men was developed from the scores of over 4,000 men on nine objective tests. These tests fall into three general categories: (1) speed, (2) endurance, and (3) stroke efficiency. The nine tests included: timed 25 yard sprints for the front crawl, breast stroke, and back crawl; the number of strokes taken to swim 50 yards using the elementary back, side, and breast strokes; and timed 20 and 25 yard underwater sprints. Test-retest reliability estimates of the nine tests ranged from .89 to .95. Intercorrelations between each test and the composite standard score of all nine tests ranged from .57 to .93.

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[1] Thomas K. Cureton, "Review of a decade of research in aquatics at Springfield College, 1929-1939," *Research Quarterly*, (10:68-79, 1939).

[2] Jack E. Hewitt, "Achievement scale scores for wartime swimming," *Research Quarterly*, (14:391-396, 1943).

[3] Jack E. Hewitt, "Achievement scale scores for high school swimming," *Research Quarterly*, (20:170-179, 1949).

[4] Jack E. Hewitt, "Achievement scale scores for college men," *Research Quarterly* (19:282-289, 1948).

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to develop a profile of swimming ability which predicted a defined encompassing criterion, and which discriminated between groups of swimmers who varied in ability.

Two criteria were used to define swimming ability: (1) judges' ratings of stroke mechanics and efficiency, and (2) speed and endurance as determined by a timed five-stroke medley. The groups of swimmers were: (1) intermediates, (2) advanced, and (3) varsity.

Procedure

A battery of seven experimental variables and two criterion variables was administered to a sample of 63 male subjects. The sample consisted of all male students enrolled in intermediate swimming classes at Indiana University during the spring semester, 1968. The sample was delimited to those students who completed the nine tests.

The seven experimental variables included:

1) *Fifteen Minute Endurance Swim for Distance.* On the starting signal each subject dived into the water and swam as many laps as he could within the 15 minute period. Counters were provided and laps were counted to the last completed lap.
2) *Two Lap Timed Medley.* A ten pound diving brick was placed on the bottom of the pool at the half-way mark. Subjects started in the water. On the command "go" they swam front crawl to the half-way line, surface dived, retrieved the brick to the surface, and continued forward with the brick, using the side stroke, to the far end and deposited the brick onto the pool deck. They then pushed off on their back and swam toward the starting end using the elementary back stroke; at the half-way mark, which was indicated by a line of pennants easily visible from the back position, they turned to the prone and swam front crawl to the finish. Times were recorded to the next tenth of a second.
3) *The Number of Strokes Taken to Complete the Length of the Pool for Each of Five Strokes Done Separately.* Subjects were instructed to swim at a pace which was a moderate pace, i.e., not too slow and not a sprint. Each subject began in the water, pushed-off, and swam one length of the pool. Strokes were counted until the subject touched at the opposite end. The five strokes and methods of counting are described below:
   (a) *Front Crawl:* strokes were counted by observing the number of hand recoveries in order to insure that only underwater pulls were counted as strokes.
   (b) *Back Crawl:* strokes were counted in the same manner as for the front crawl, i.e., at the completion of each underwater pull.
   (c) *Side Stroke:* each "power phase," that is, each complete arm-leg cycle, was counted as a stroke.
   (d) *Elementary Back Stroke:* strokes were counted in the same manner as in the side stroke.
   (e) *Breast Stroke:* strokes were counted in the same manner as for the side stroke and elementary back stroke.

Swimming ability was defined in terms of stroke efficiency, mechanics, speed, and endurance. Stroke efficiency and mechanics were determined by the ratings of three judges; speed and endurance were determined by a five-stroke timed medley swim.

1) *Judges' Ratings.* Three experienced judges rated strokes for each intermediate swimmer on a 0-9 scale. Ratings were conducted at a mass session in which each subject swam one length of the pool for each of the strokes to be rated. Ratings were done for the entire group in order of the front crawl, back crawl, side stroke, elementary back stroke, and breast stroke. The judges were instructed to first look for the over-all "flow" of the stroke and then to consider mechanics.

2) *Medley Swim.* Each subject was timed for a continuous five-lap medley swim. Subjects began in the water, and on the starting signal swam five lengths of the pool in the order of front crawl, back crawl, breast stroke, elementary back stroke, and side stroke. Timing was done by a stop watch with the time being recorded to the next tenth of a second.

Subjects representative of two additional populations divergent in swimming ability were administered the seven experimental variables. The sample of advanced swimmers consisted of 13 male subjects enrolled in a Water Safety Instructor course during the spring semester of 1968. All subjects held a valid life saving certificate issued by the American Red Cross. The sample of varsity swimmers consisted of 12 members of the Indiana University Intercollegiate Swimming Team who had qualified for the 1968 Olympic Swimming Trials. Four of the varsity swimmers competed in the 1968 Olympic Games, and one swimmer won three gold medals and a silver medal while another swimmer won two gold medal[illegible]

Statistical Results

An estimate of reliability of the three judges' ratings of stroke efficiency and mechanics was completed utilizing the analysis of variance model reported in Winer[5]. The intraclass reliability of the ratings was .968 which was significant at the .01 level of confidence. The F-ratio of between judge variation was 1.14 which was not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

All 36 intercorrelations among the seven experimental variables and the two criterion variables were significantly different than zero at the .01 level of confidence. A stepwise multiple regression model[6] was used to examine the multiple correlation between the experimental variables and each criterion. This model computes a sequence of multiple linear regression equations in a stepwise manner with the variable that accounts for the most additional variance added at each step. Tables I and II summarize the results of the two multiple regression analyses. In each analysis, the multiple correlation between the criterion

TABLE I

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE CRITERION VARIABLE, STROKE EFFICIENCY AND MECHANICS (N = 63)

Step	*Variable Added*	*Multiple Correlation*	*Per Cent of Contribution*
1	15 Minute Swim	.8472	71.77
2	Breast Stroke	.9045	10.04
3	Elementary Back Stroke	.9094	.88
4	2 Length Medley	.9118	.44
5	Back Crawl	.9133	.29
6	Side Stroke	.9141	.14
7	Front Crawl	.9145	.07

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[5] B. J. Winer, *Statistical Principles in Experimental Design*, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1962) 672 pp.

[6] W. J. Dixon, (editor) *Biometric Computer Programs*, (Los Angeles: Health Science Computing Facility, Department of Preventive Medicine and Public Health, University of California, 1965), pp. 233-257.

and the experimental variables increased at all seven steps. The two analyses demonstrated that both criterion variables were predicted with accuracy; however, the sequence of variables differed.

Canonical analysis[7] was used to determine the maximum correlation between the set of criterion variables and the seven experimental variables. The results of the canonical analyses are presented in Table III. The maximum correlation between the two sets of variables was .9679. The canonical coefficients of three experimental variables (front crawl, back crawl, and side stroke) were small and added little to the obtained canonical correlation. A second canonical analysis, in which these three variables were excluded, produced a canonical correlation of .9677.

TABLE II

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE CRITERION VARIABLE, OF SPEED AND ENDURANCE (N = 63)

Step	*Variable Added*	*Multiple Correlation*	*Per Cent of Contribution*
1	2 Length Medley	.9329	87.03
2	15 Minute Swim	.9442	2.13
3	Elementary Back Stroke	.9507	1.22
4	Front Crawl	.9514	.14
5	Back Crawl	.9517	.04
6	Breast Stroke	.9519	.04
7	Side Stroke	.9519	.01

TABLE III

CANONICAL ANALYSES BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL VARIABLES AND CRITERION VARIABLES

		*Canonical Coefficients**		
	Predictor Set	*I*	*II*	*III*
1.	Front Crawl	-.033		.215
2.	Back Crawl	.011		.138
3.	Side Stroke	-.013		.288
4.	Elementary Back Stroke	.155	.155	.144
5.	Breast Stroke	.096	.096	.445
6.	15 Minute Swim	.370	.370	
7.	2 Length Medley	.578	.578	
	Criterion Set			
C-1	Stroke Mechanics and Efficiency	.374	.374	.786
C-2	Speed and Endurance	.677	.677	.254
	Canonical Correlation	.9679	.9677	.8366

*Coefficients of standardized variables.

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[7] *Ibid.*, pp. 207-214.

Two experimental variables (15 minute swim and 2 length medley) accounted for most of the variability of the predictor set. Since these two tests are relatively difficult to administer, and since the intercorrelations of all experimental tests were significant at the .01 level of confidence, a third canonical analysis was performed. This predictor set consisted of only the five one-length, easily administered, stroke tests. The obtained canonical correlation was .8366. In the first two canonical analyses the criterion variable of speed and endurance accounted for most of the criterion set variance; however, in the third canonical analysis, the criterion variable of stroke mechanics and efficiency was the most important.

The power of the profile of seven experimental variables to discriminate between populations known to differ in swimming ability was investigated by multiple discriminate analysis[8]. The analysis among the three groups produced an F-ratio of 11.56, and with 14 and 158 degrees of freedom this was significant at the .01 level of confidence. The generalized multivariate null hypothesis that the three groups demonstrated a similar profile of swimming ability was rejected. The means and standard deviations of each group are presented in Table IV.

TABLE IV

THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL VARIABLES FOR THREE DIVERGENT GROUPS*

Variable	*Intermediate (N = 63)*		*Advanced (N = 13)*		*Varsity (N = 12)*	
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
1. Front Crawl	27.3	4.46	22.5	3.69	17.7	1.15
2. Back Crawl	28.3	4.89	23.8	3.58	17.6	1.56
3. Side Stroke	20.7	5.45	14.4	2.53	11.1	.90
4. Elementary Back Stroke	18.0	5.40	12.4	2.50	8.9	.79
5. Breast Stroke	22.5	7.00	14.7	3.30	10.8	1.54
6. 15 Minute Swim	23.9	5.67	28.6	7.11	45.3	2.26
7. 2 Length Medley	58.8	12.68	49.4	5.52	39.2	1.68

*Number of Subjects Correctly Classified

Multivariate analysis of variance was used to make all two-group comparisons with the profile of seven experimental variables. With three groups, three different two-group comparisons were possible. In each analysis, the multivariate null hypothesis that two groups displayed a similar profile of swimming ability was rejected at the .01 level of confidence. A discriminant function for each group that maximized the difference between groups transformed the seven individual test scores into a single discriminant score. Using the discriminant score, group membership was predicted and 76 per cent of the subjects were correctly classified. The classification matrix is presented in Table V.

Discussion

Most published swimming tests have been empirically developed. Little concern has been

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[8] *Ibid.*, pp. 214a-214t.

TABLE V

CLASSIFICATION MATRIX OF ALL SUBJECTS BY THE SEVEN-VARIABLE PROFILE OF SWIMMING

Group	*Number of Cases Classified Into Group*			*Total*
	Intermediate	*Advanced*	*Varsity*	
Intermediate	45*	16	2	63
Advanced	1	10*	2	13
Varsity	0	0	12*	12

given to the establishment of a defined, encompassing criterion of swimming ability that was independent of the experimental variables. Hewitt[9,10] attempted to define swimming ability by a composite standard score of all experimental tests used. This procedure does offer a method of reducing the number of variables that will comprise the final test battery; however, the spurious validity coefficients produced by this procedure are evident. The experimental variables used in Hewitt's investigations and this investigation were quite similar; however, the results of the two studies differed considerably.

The criteria used in this investigation were accurately predicted. The percentage of variance common to both the experimental variables and each criterion variable suggested that the criteria stroke efficiency and mechanics, and swimming speed and endurance functioned effectively. The procedure of defining swimming ability by a single criterion, however, does not appear to be justified. The intercorrelation between the two criterion variables indicated that only 62 per cent of the variance between criteria was common. The canonical analysis demonstrated that the canonical coefficients of both criterion variables improved the predictive power of the experimental variables. The procedure of using both criteria is not only more favorable for statistical reasons, but is also a more valid interpretation of the intermediate swimming course taught at the college level.

The validity of the defined criteria was documented through multiple discriminate analysis. By chance alone, one would expect that 11 per cent of the subjects would be correctly classified; however, the discriminate score developed from the profile of swimming ability correctly classified 76 per cent of the subjects. Since the canonical correlation between the profile and the criterion set was .9679, it is logical to assume that the encompassing criterion consisting of stroke mechanics, efficiency, speed, and endurance is a valid interpretation of swimming ability.

The multiple regression analyses and the canonical analyses suggested that not all seven experimental variables were necessary to secure high correlations. The results presented in Tables I, II, and III indicate that the decision concerning selection of experimental variables to be included in the profile must be based on the criterion or criteria used. The means of the three groups presented in Table IV, however, indicate that all variables discriminated between the three levels of performance.

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[9] Hewitt, *op. cit.*, 20:170-179.

[10] Hewitt, *op. cit.*, 14:282-289.

The swimming pool used to conduct the study was 88 feet in length. Since most college pools are 75 feet in length, raw score predictive equations are not presented. The canonical coefficients presented in Table III may be used with standard scores (e.g., distribution of T) to develop a linear equation with a function to predict the combined criterion of stroke efficiency, mechanics, speed, and endurance. A four-item profile is demonstrated below:*

$$Y = .155\ (\text{T-score elementary back stroke}) + .096\ (\text{T-score breast stroke}) + .370\ (\text{T-score 15 minute swim}) + .578\ (\text{T-score 2 length medley})$$

Conclusions

The findings of the statistical analyses support the following conclusions.

1) The profile of swimming ability accurately predicts the criterion stroke mechanics and efficiency.
2) The profile of swimming ability accurately predicts the criterion speed and endurance.
3) Swimming ability of college men is most precisely defined and accurately predicted with the profile by utilizing an encompassing criterion comprised of stroke mechanics, efficiency, speed, and endurance.
4) The profile of swimming ability discriminates between populations known to differ in swimming ability.

Resuscitation and Cross-Infection Control

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INTRODUCTION

The training of mouth-to-mouth resuscitation should be carried on by all organizations for the obvious reason of promoting knowledgeable people who can perform this method in emergencies[1]. Many avoidable deaths are due to some form of suffocation. The teachability of this method has been ascertained by the evidence that 90% of 164 untrained rescuers performed this method satisfactorily after one demonstration.[2]

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*Copies of the complete statistical analysis may be obtained from the authors upon request.

[1] Bramwell W. Gabrielsen, *Facts on Drowning Accidents,* (University of Georgia: Printing Department, 1956), 59 pp.

[2] P. Safar, "Council on Medical Physics, Symposium on Mouth-To-Mouth Resuscitation (Expired Air Inflation), Ventilatory Efficacy of Mouth-To-Mouth Artificial Respiration," *Journal of the American Medical Association,* (1958), pp. 167, 335.

INFECTIOUS DISEASE

Any method of artificial respiration has particular advantages and disadvantages.[3,4,5,6,7,8] However, the possibility of cross-infection always prevails in the mouth-to-mouth technique. Two Illinois State Troopers recently acquired lung infections as a result of mouth-to-mouth rescue. One trooper has had a continual problem ever since and has been unable to have it successfully treated.[9] A 25-year old intern in the Medical Division at Bellevue Hospital contracted cutaneous tuberculosis soon after giving mouth-to-mouth resuscitation to a patient. Examination of the deceased patient disclosed active tuberculosis of the upper right lobe. A lesion near the left side of the nose was noted on the intern's face about eight weeks after using mouth-to-mouth on the patient. Tubercle bacilli were identified by biopsy. Preventive measures were not taken by the intern prior to the biopsy.[10] There is also a risk that the rescuer will transmit infectious disease to the one being resuscitated. In emergencies neither can afford not to take this chance of cross-infection.[11] All individuals should uphold the humanitarian aspects of rendering resuscitation to a fellow man in a state of asphyxia condition. Various types of devices such as inhalators, inhalator-respirators and a variety of manual devices if not sterilized can be agents for the transmittal of infections.

Resusci-Anne manikins are used as substitute victims in schools, by fire departments, American Red Cross Chapters and other agencies as an aid in teaching the basic elements of proper resuscitation. It will never be known just how many practicing rescuers have

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[3] Joseph Brook, M.H. Brook, and J.F. Lopez, "Artificial Respiration and Artificial Circulation," *The Canadian Medical Association Journal,* (1965), pp. 93,396.

[4] D.M. Dill, "Council on Medical Physics, Symposium on Mouth-To-Mouth Resuscitation (Expired Air Inflation)," *Journal of the American Medical Association,*(1958), pp. 167, 317.

[5] A.S. Gordon, C.W. Frye, L. Bittelson, M.S. Sadove, and E.J. Veattie, Jr., "Council on Medical Physics, Symposium on Mouth-To-Mouth Resuscitation (Expired Air Inflation), Mouth-To-Mouth Versus Manual Artificial Respiration for Children and Adults," *Journal of the American Medical Association,* (1958) pp. 167, 320.

[6] Ronald L. Linder, "Mouth-To-Mouth Resuscitation — Isn't It Worth the Risk?" *The Journal of School Health,* (1967), 37:187-189.

[7] Safar, *op. cit.*, pp. 167, 335.

[8] P. Safar, "Mouth-To-Mouth Airway," *Anesthesiology,* (1957), pp. 18, 906.

[9] Richard Pohndorf, interview with Director of Illinois State Police Academy, Springfield, Illinois.

[10] K.M. Heilman and C. Muchenheim, "Primary Cutaneous Tuberculosis Resulting From Mouth-To-Mouth Respiration: Report of a Case," *The New England Journal of Medicine,* (1966) pp. 273, 1035-36.

[11] Linder, *op. cit.*, pp. 187-189.

transmitted disease by lodging their infections in the manikin's mouth and air chamber only to be picked up later by some unsuspecting person practicing on the life-like dummy. This is much like the common community drinking cup at the village well.

A goodly number of administrative organizations are supervising areas of potential dangers such as swimming pools, waterfronts, stadiums, hospitals, schools and so forth. These organizations should have an emergency resuscitation device designed to function as an adjunct to mouth-to-mouth technique stationed stratigically. Such a device is a Pneumatic Bag Resuscitator designed for emergency resuscitations for all age groups.

SPECIFICATIONS

The hand compression bulb of the AIR-VIVA is slush molded vinyl providing for rapid refills when external pressure is relieved. This is especially necessary when high respiratory rates are needed to ventilate small infants. A thermoplastic partial non-breathing valve is attached to the flexible convoluted neck of the hand bulb. A large diameter stainless steel spring serves to close the floating plastic disk valve to prevent sticking. The design of the partial rebreathing valve allows part of the early expired gases to be entrained and mixed with fresh ambient gases entering the hand bulb. This partial rebreathing of expired gases reduces the chance of severe hyperventilation which could be dangerous during post traumatic stress when circulatory catechol amines are high.

Extreme clearance around the plastic disk gate of the valve and great stand-off from its seat minimizes the possibility of the valve becoming incompetent from airway or esophageal secretions. The compression bulb and partial rebreathing valve allow for easy removal to wash and sterilize after use.

The face masks are transparent so that any vomit or water may be observed before it is forced back into the lungs. Recent studies indicate a large percentage vomit at the juncture of being revived and many times in "sympathetic" reaction mouth-to-mouth rescuers also vomit.[12] Face pads are of pure gum rubber to insure a completely effective seal at the face. The emergency resuscitator, complete with adult's mask, child's mask, and carrying case, weighs only 3 lbs. 7 oz.

CROSS-INFECTION CONTROL

Any resuscitation aids such as tubes, mouthpieces, masks, etc. should always be sterilized after usage. Additionally, for re-users to follow each other without previous sterilization is non-compliance of proper hygienic procedures. Any such implements should be stored in sterilized plastic bags.

Resusci-Anne manikins and other such devices are so constructed that sterilizing is practically impossible mainly due to the minute air sacs in the sponge-like interior. Use of Resusci-Anne might be feasible if assigned and used by only one instructor for demonstration purposes. Use of AIR-VIVA on the dummy by all trainees is feasible.

Rescuers and rescued alike when mouth-to-mouth resuscitation is used should be checked for possible cross-infection. In case the victim is not revived an autopsy should be performed and a thorough check made as to possible transmission of a communicable disease. All necessary steps should be taken for treatment when indicated.

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[12] Richard L. Brown, "CNCA Revived Water Case Study – Progress Report," *Conference for National Cooperation in Aquatics,* (Washington, D.C., 1962), pp. 32-43.

STERILIZATION TECHNIQUES

There are various families of disinfectants. They include: 1) the mercury compounds, 2) the halogens and halogen compounds, 3) the phenols, 4) the synthetic detergents, 5) the alcohols, 6) the natural products, and 7) the gases.

Chlorine is an excellent sterilizing agent since the molecules of chlorine work into the surfaces of the material and continue to maintain bacteriostasis for many days after the parts have been sterilized. Calcium hypochlorite ($Ca[OCl]_2$) is available as chlorinated lime. Sodium hypochlorite (Na OC1) is marketed as a disinfectant in aqueous solutions containing from 1 to 15% of the compound. Household chlorine solutions such as Purex, Clorox, etc. are available.

Solutions should be prepared as follows: a. Mix 1 ounce of 14% chlorine for each 2 gallons of water in a container. b. Make a second container of the same solution. c. In a third tub, mix 1 ounce of 17% Zephiran chloride for each 2 gallons of water. Add about 10 drops of vanilla extract to each 2 gallons of water to the third solution. Soiled components should be placed in the first tub for 10 minutes at ambient temperatures. Then place materials in second tub containing chlorine for 15 minutes at ambient temperatures. Rinse parts in sink briefly and then immerse in the third tub containing Zephiran chloride and vanilla extract for a minute or so. When dry, make ready for service and seal exposed parts with plastic covers.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Comparative, International, and Development Studies in Physical Education

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Introduction

In recent years a tremendous wave of interest has developed concerning international aspects of physical education. Professional magazines abound with articles written by American physical educators who have visited other countries and who want to share their observations with their colleagues. To date, few if any, of these reports qualify as formal comparative research.

Physical education in America lags behind several other disciplines in the number, sophistication, and rigor of comparative studies between two or more countries concerning phenomena of central interest to the discipline of physical education.

This article briefly analyzes the current status of comparative, international, and development studies in physical education, discusses criteria for rigorous research in these areas, and offers selected suggestions for interested physical education investigators.

Comparative education

Traditional comparative education research has been carried on for many years both in the United States and in other countries. Typically, the investigators have been specialists in the history or philosophy of education, although not exclusively so. One of the most distinguished leaders of this field, Bereday,[1] characterizes comparative education as follows:

> Comparative education seeks to make sense out of the similarities and differences among educational systems. It catalogues educational methods across national frontiers; and in this catalogue each country appears as one variant of the total store of mankind's educational experience. If well set off, the like and the contrasting colors of the world perspective will make each country a potential beneficiary of the lessons thus received.

A 1968 statement offers the view of comparative education:

> . . . comparative education is described in its traditional sense of studies of foreign education systems, historical and contemporary juxtaposition of educationally relevant data, and cross-national comparisons. Comparative education generally has been associated with historians and philosophers of education.[2]

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[1] George Z. Bereday, *Comparative Method in Education* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964), p. 5.

[2] Seth Spaulding, John Singleton, and Paul Watson, "The Context of International Development Education," *Review of Educational Research,* (June, 1968), p. 203.

Similar definitions by other authorities emphasize systematic analysis of educational problems and programs through comparison of two or more countries in order to reveal underlying causes for similarities and differences.

In earlier days comparative education was mainly descriptive, a statement which aptly describes the status of most comparative study in physical education today. Currently, comparative education is concentrating on unfolding the possibilities and potentialities for testing hypotheses, producing valid generalizations, and evolving predictive methodologies as a basis for sound decision making and policy formulation in education. Less importance now is attached to the search for what Holmes[3] calls "antecedent causes."

Purposes follow from definitions. Many purposes have been ascribed to comparative studies in education, such as:

1) To learn more about the true, indigenous characteristics of a country, its people, and its cultural heritage, all of which are sharply revealed by the nature of its educational system.
2) Such study enables one to understand and know himself better as a result of reflecting his own experiences and values against the mirror of evidence accumulated through the study of other people and other countries. Bereday[4] says, "It is self-knowledge born of the awareness of others that is the finest lesson comparative education can afford."
3) The United States, Russia, Red China and other countries are providing tremendous amounts of foreign aid to developing nations, much of which is invested in educational programs. Thus, it is more important than ever before that we learn all we can about the operations of the educational systems of the countries we aid so we can make our most effective contribution to nation building.
4) Likewise, it is valuable for any country to become sympathetic to the comparative approach so that it will become more flexible and more receptive to new ideas and alternative methods of building curriculum, and of improving instruction, so that desirable educational change can be enhanced within the country.
5) Finally, and as the chief reason for most research endeavors undertaken by scholars, comparative researchers study educational systems in other countries for the fundamental intellectual reason of being curious and desiring to "know" for the sake of knowledge in its own right.

Bereday[5] and others suggest that there are two major components of comparative education, (1) area studies, and (2) comparative studies. Area studies are carried on within one country or region. They involve two important phases, (a) a descriptive phase which involves the systematic collection of educational data, and (b) the explanatory phase which consists of social analysis and the interpretation of pedagogical data by means of methodologies from the social sciences.

Comparative studies involve four major steps: (1) juxtaposition, or the systematic arrangement of data from two or more countries around common topics; (2) establishing the criterion upon which a valid comparison can be made between countries on each topic being analyzed; (3) the creation of a hypothesis from the outcomes of steps (1) and (2) which can be tested through the comparisons; and (4) a process of technical comparison involving simultaneous analysis across several countries.

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[3] Brian Holmes, *Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965) pp. 20, 21.

[4] Bereday, 1965, p. 6.

[5] Bereday, 1965, pp. 9, 10.

International education and development education

In recent years new trends and changing emphases have occurred which have altered the original concept of comparative education. Two major "offshoots" or branches of traditional comparative education now hold prominence on the world scene, namely, international education and development education. The borderlines between these two fields and between each of them and comparative education are blurred. Different authorities define these fields in varying terms and with conceptual schemes which are not completely in accord with each other. A perusal of the research literature of these three fields of study testifies to the lack of agreement among the adherents to each. Running arguments abound in the books, magazine articles, and research reports about the central concerns of these fields, primary modes of inquiry characteristic of each, and basic purposes which guide the teaching and research enterprises ongoing in each. Selected points of view are cited to assist the reader to understand the controversy as it exists today.

Bereday[6] reports that many specialists now are foresaking the traditional term "comparative education," for the label, "international education" and that development education can be considered to be one new branch of this field. Others have reduced the scope of comparative education, prefer to retain its name, and delimit its scope to studies of school systems in various countries employing basically the tools of political sociology. In essence comparative education is the study of educational phenomena compared in point of time seeking to sort out similarities and differences and attempting to account for them.

International education is described in various ways. Fraser[7] simply regards it as the study of ". . . intellectual, cultural, and educational relationships among individuals and groups in two or more nations." This definition would appear not to deviate significantly from those reported earlier concerning comparative education.

Spaulding, Singleton, and Watson[8] say that:

> International education, sometimes combined by others with comparative education is seen here as the field concerned with cross-national relations and cooperation and exchanges of educational information and personnel. The three major areas of interest associated with international education are international relations and cooperation in education; cross-national movements of educational materials, students, teachers, consultants, and aid; and education for international and cross-cultural understanding.

Notable examples in physical education are ICHPER conferences and publications; the International Olympic Academy archives, publications, and seminars; the Fulbright lecturer and research program; the Fulbright foreign leaders program; the United States Department of State Specialist program in athletics and physical education; the Asia Foundation consultant program; and the Peace Corps physical education project. These programs attempt to carry out the major purposes stated above but in actuality they are not functioning with a rigorous research arm to carry out investigations which would assess the efficacy of the actual results of these programs. Thus, these international programs in physical education cannot be regarded as international education (physical education) *research projects under the criteria discussed in this paper.*

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[6] George Z. Bereday, "Reflections on Comparative Methodology in Education, 1964-66," *Comparative Education,* (June, 1967), p. 171.

[7] Stewart E. Fraser, "International and Comparative Education," *Review of Educational Research,* (February, 1967), p. 58.

[8] Spaulding, Singleton, and Watson, p. 204.

International education primarily uses the methodologies of anthropology although not exclusively. There is less emphasis on comparison than in comparative education.

Spaulding, Singleton, and Watson[9] complicate the picture by introducing the bifurcated term "international development education." According to their description:

> . . . the field (is) concerned with organized programs of teaching and learning within the context of planning for economic, social, or political change in the newly developing regions of the world. It is the study of the time, place, and kind of educational interventions appropriate within specific cultural contexts. It utilizes the substance and methods of the social sciences and social professions and assumes the relevance of educational organizations and strategies to both individual and national development . . . education is viewed as potentially instrumental in development . . . it stresses the interaction of cultures and countries.

Now we begin to feel the redundancy and overlapping currently found in the various descriptions of these fields.

"Development education" is another term in prominent current use. Bereday[10] regards it as a "splinter group" separating from traditional comparative education. About twenty years ago UNESCO coined the term "fundamental education" for a vast program of educational aid to many countries throughout the world. The American "Point Four" foreign aid program of the late 1940s and early 1950s also contributed significantly to expansion of fundamental education programs in many corners of the world. Public, community, and personal health usually was a basic factor in this program, along with literacy education. Except for medical aspects of fitness, sports and physical education seldom were involved in fundamental education projects. The term "development education" now has superseded the older phrase "fundamental education."

Some authors make a distinction by saying that development education emphasizes the dynamics of education, while comparative education is concerned with the statics of education. Development education studies the dynamics and interactions of relevant variables which presumably promote modernization in developing nations. Economists and manpower specialists are prominent in leadership and research in development education and the methodologies of these fields are emphasized. They believe strongly that the national educational system (the organizational plan of education followed by most countries throughout the world) is a vital investment essential to modernization and development in the social, economic, and political growth of a country. The dynamics of educational programs as they relate to social forces in the broadest sense constitute the area for study. The ultimate goal of such studies is to evolve more viable and intelligent national policies and governmental decisions.

Finally, development education aims not only to assist a particular country but also takes the global view of sharing knowledges, abilities, skills, and achievements with other nations.

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[9] *Ibid.*, p. 203, 204

[10] Bereday, June, 1967, p. 180.

Regardless of the labels one wishes to ascribe to these various areas of inquiry and leadership many significant improvements have occurred in recent years and more are sure to follow. More highly trained specialists from the social sciences (philosophy, history, sociology, anthropology, economics, and political science) are joining teams of researchers which usually involve educators as well. Greater sophistication of research techniques is occurring continuously. The quality and quantity of scholarly publications are increasing rapidly. There is a trend toward "regional problem" studies supported by multi-national representation on research and leadership teams.

One cannot conclude this brief analysis without a slightly disappointing assessment of the influence of comparative education work to date. It can be contended that very few comparative education studies have fundamentally influenced governmental policy in education so as to effect significant change.

Research in comparative education

This section highlights some of the basic considerations involved in conducting research in comparative education (physical education.)

Friedrich Schneider[11] provides a fertile framework for the conceptualization of significant research topics by listing what he has analyzed to be the "formative factors" which he contends are found in all educational systems in all cultures:

> folk character; geographical space (natural environment); culture and civilization (cultural environment; social class structure; historical development and destiny; influence of foreign areas; internal evolution of educational ideals.

Basic to research in comparative studies is a store of rich, reliable, fundamental descriptive data concerning the educational phenomena of interest in each country and comparable data organized so it can be compared between countries.

Another challenge to the researcher is that at present many of the educational, social, political, and economic variables which must be taken into account are not quantifiable and hence cannot be reported in quantified statements. Much analysis to date has been "qualitative", a term which implies certain limitations from a research perspective as well as providing desirable dimensions for a broad research approach.

Moehlman[12] makes the critical observation that comparative analysis requires a theoretical model with which to study educational trends and patterns, and to analyze the influences of long range factors seen in historical perspective, including such viewpoints as the social, aesthetic, ethical, political, scientific, technological, and economic.

Bereday[13] describes modern cross-cultural analytical methodology borne of long time tested experience by him and his pioneer colleagues. There are two major simultaneous procedural steps, (1) juxtaposition, and (2) comparison. In essence, this methodology starts with (a) a defining statement or central theme which will be the basis for subsequent comparisons; (b) followed by the thorough, systematic collection and reporting of relevant data for the theme from two or more countries simultaneously; and (c) a summation statement in hypothesis form which reflects the exacting nature of the comparative analysis being undertaken.

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[11] Friedrich Schneider, *Triebkrafte der Padagogik der Volker, Eine, Einfuhrung in die Vergleichnede Ersiehungswissenschaft* (Salzburg: Ottom Miller Verlad, 1947), p. 39.

[12] Arthur H. Moehlman, *Comparative Educational Systems,* 1963. (Washington, D.C. The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1963), p. 4.

[13] Bereday, 1965, pp. 22, 23.

In the juxtaposition step a preliminary "matching" of relevant data from two or more countries is made to prepare them for comparison. First, an appropriate category system, with the prerequisite conditions of categories, must be created by the investigator for the systematic inclusion of data to be compared. Second, the investigator studiously analyzes the comparative data in his search for an emerging hypothesis (or hypotheses). The hypothesis must be stated in terms relevant to the characteristics of the data so that the hypothesis can then be subjected to rigorous test.

The juxtaposition step determines the extent to which comparison is feasible. It is a procedure which establishes a basic consistency. This procedure in itself does *not* directly generate conclusions, it lays the basis for hypothesis development, hypothesis testing, and for generalization validation.[14]

Hypothesis development and testing is crucial to comparative methodology. The hypothesis is created by the investigator's intellectual abilities to "tease out" and propose a tentative explanation of the data which have been placed in juxtaposition for intense comparison and analysis. When a hypothesis has been identified and carefully stated it then is subjected to test by means of subsequent comparison of similar categories of data to determine the extent to which it is accepted, rejected, or modified.

Bereday[15] mentions two types of comparisons following juxtaposition. One he calls "balanced" comparison which means that a match, or a balance, of every type of data has been made from one country compared to similar data from all other countries in the study. This procedure starts with a comparison of each country with every other country by systematic rotation of the data. It terminates with comparison of results by fusion or synthesis.

The second kind of comparison is titled "illustrative." Educational practices in different countries are selected at random to illustrate, or exemplify, comparative points found in the juxtaposition charts. Because illustrations are specific instances which are not repeated from example to example the kinds of statements which can be made from such analysis are not capable of assuming the characteristics of generalizations.

It seems self-evident to caution the young, less experienced investigator to start his studies with small topics or delimited themes within the larger educational context of a country. Study this theme intensely and derive a careful detailed description of its persistence and variability within the systems being investigated. Gradually, with experience the investigator can widen the scope of his inquiries. Total countrywide and inter-country analysis should be attempted only after many years of experience, and advanced study. This admonition is called the "problem approach."

Anderson[16] pleads for an emphasis on "educational-societal" analysis rather than intra-educational analysis. The study of education, or of any other single element in a culture, cannot be studied in isolation. Comparative education studies must be viewed in their entire cultural context.

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[14] Bereday, 1967, pp. 169-187.

[15] *Ibid.*, pp. 171, 172.

[16] C. Arnold Anderson, "Methodology of Comparative Education," *International Review of Education*, Vol. 7, No. 1, (1961), pp. 1-23.

Researchers in comparative education

The authorities suggest many important attributes and recommend a variety of training experiences to the would-be comparative education investigator. In past years American universities have placed research training for comparative education specialists at the post-doctoral level by and large. Also, it is common to recommend that the researcher be trained in one relevant basic academic discipline and that he concentrate his advanced study on one country or geographical region.

There is a recent trend to prepare doctoral candidates for comparative, international and development education research and leadership usually with academic concentration in one discipline, and with a geographical area of interest in mind. However, this preparation also includes work in one or more related disciplines such as economics, sociology, political science, or anthropology, to the extent feasible in the doctoral program, and as supplementary training after completion of the doctorate.

International development centers for education at such universities as Stanford, Chicago, Syracuse, Columbia, Harvard, and others have common concerns today which differ from the more traditional research emphases in past years in comparative education. Spaulding, Singleton, and Watson[17] indicate:

> (a) the need for more sophisticated research literature to support educational policy and planning decisions in the developing nations; (b) the need to improve the quality, effectiveness, and economy of external assistance in educational development efforts around the world; (c) the need to examine educational methods, techniques, and strategies that might be uniquely significant in the context of emerging nations; (d) the need to prepare professional 'overseasmen' educators for international assistance efforts; and (e) the need to better program educational activities in the more developed nations for students from overseas who are being prepared for professional contributions to the development of their home nations.

Finally, it is clear that, as Moehlman[18] states, "... studies of comparative educational systems require the cooperation of specialists in comparative education and a wide range of experts from the various related disciplines such as philosophy, history, economics, sociology, geography, statistics, linguistics, psychology, law, and medicine."

The universities which are taking the lead in forward looking leadership and research preparation programs are staffing their international education centers with a variety of scholars from the relevant academic disciplines who want to lend their expertise to the basic and applied research in comparative education, and to nation building on the part of newer developing countries in the broader realms of social, political, and economic growth.

Likewise, research teams in the field are constituted with similar varieties of scholarly competence to mount an all-encompassing attack on major comparative problems and issues.

Comparative physical education

In recent years large numbers of physical educators from the United States have visited other countries either in a formal educational assignment or as interested "tourists." They have visited schools, sports clubs, international sports events, and have attended international conferences with their colleagues from other countries. The *JOHPER Journal*, the *Physical Educator* magazine, and other professional publications contain numerous reports of the experiences of American physical educators in various countries around the globe. As a result of these stimulating and thrilling experiences there has developed a strong interest in "comparative" physical education especially in the colleges and universities in this country. Every year more institutions initiate a course in "Comparative Physical Education", usually as an elective in the physical education major program.

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[17] Spaulding, Singleton, and Watson, p. 203.

[18] Moehlman, p. 1.

The available American literature on comparative physical education consists largely of articles containing personal descriptions of people, programs, and facilities as observed by the American visitor, and occasionally some statements of personal reactions or impressions. Textbooks on comparative physical education still are extremely scarce. Examples are the two Monographs on *Physical Education Around the World*,[19] William Johnson, editor, published by Phi Epsilon Kappa Fraternity; and *The World Today in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*,[20] by Lynn Vendien and John Nixon. These publications cannot rightfully be considered to contain material which has resulted from rigorous comparative research. At best they are examples of the early phases of the descriptive stage of comparative research. Even so the material is not organized with the end in view of organizing it for the juxtaposition step and consequent analysis which is major step number two in comparative research.

A cursory review of recent articles in the *JOHPER Journal*, and *The Research Quarterly* and the list of titles of masters and doctoral theses and dissertations in the Micro-card Catalogues do not seem to contain any studies which can be classified as rigorous comparative physical education research.

Neither does the physical education literature contain many articles which take the international educational education or the development education approach in their purer sense as briefly described above.

The physical education profession in the United States has very few fully qualified comparative researchers.

There is a heartening trend now in that more and more bright young, committed physical education doctoral students are specializing in comparative and international education usually in inter-departmental cooperation with one of the new Centers for International Education which provide appropriate, advanced research training. The best programs require knowledge of a foreign language, an extended period in residence in one foreign country doing field work in the area of specialization, and ultimately the production of research in the foreign country which satisfies the requirements for the dissertation. These young doctoral students are receiving financial assistance from governmental agencies or private foundations for this overseas preparation and experience. The formal training received in such a doctoral program is highly interdisciplinary in nature usually emphasizing theoretical, conceptual, and methodological approaches to comparative study through course work, directed reading, and independent study and research in economics, political science, and sociology, along with required work in education and in physical education. Many of these students already have had overseas experience in the Peace Corps, or Volunteers to Asia, and similar programs where they developed their personal commitment to a life of work overseas. This new trend augers well for the development of this aspect of physical education.

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[19] *Physical Education Around the World*, William Johnson, ed., Monograph #1 (1966), and Monograph #2, (1968) Indianapolis: Phi Epsilon Kappa Fraternity.

[20] C. Lynn Vendien and John E. Nixon, *The World Today in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), pp. 432.

One example of a possible proposal for research which would be acceptable under the international development education (physical education) rubric is attached as Appendix A. It might tentatively be entitled "The Role of Sports and Physical Education in Achieving Political Socialization and Integration in (name of country)." Another study currently being undertaken by the author is tentatively called "The Role of Sports as an Instrument of National Policy" and will be conducted with reference to several selected countries.

Conclusion

It seems clear that physical education is in an early stage of growth in research in comparative, international, and developmental studies in the United States. There is widespread, intense interest in these fields of investigation and professional leadership and more and more intelligent, capable, young physical educators are being attracted to it. We are aware of our present deficiencies in advanced theoretical, conceptual, and methodological preparation. We are moving confidently ahead to remedy those deficiencies. We now are producing highly trained, qualified young people to step into research and leadership roles throughout the world. The future is indeed bright!

Alfred N. Whitehead[21] has expressed most aptly the feeling and motivation that draws so many people to this kind of exciting and rewarding career:

> When man ceases to wander, he will cease to ascend in the scale of being. Physical wandering is still important, but greater still is the power of man's spiritual – adventures of thought, adventures of passionate feeling, adventures of aesthetic experience. A diversification among human communities is essential for the provision of the incentive and material for the Odyssey of the human spirit.

APPENDIX A

Proposal for Doctoral Study in Physical Education International Education

Title: "The Role of Sports and Physical Education in Achieving Political Socialization and Integration in ________________ ."

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine how sports and physical education help achieve political socialization and integration in ________________ . It will attempt to answer the following questions:

1) How are political attitudes inculcated through sports and physical education programs?

2) How do sports preferences, attitudes, and behaviors reveal the way(s) in which ______________ think about politics?

   a. Are these sports preferences, etc. different for different ethnic groups or regions of the country? What do such differences indicate about the problems of political socialization and integration?

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[21] Alfred N. Whitehead, *Science and the Modern World* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925), p. 298.

b. How do the leadership patterns in sports correspond with leadership patterns in the political sphere?

3) Do sports contribute to further social stratification in ________________, or do they serve instead as an integrating or unifying force?

4) How can sports and physical education programs be modified in the future to make greater contributions to political socialization and integration in ________________?

Methodological Procedures

This investigation will employ the case study technique. Because of lack of previous research evidence and empirical data relating to this problem, it is not feasible to propose a hypothesis for testing. Thus, the study will be exploratory in nature. Also, it is hoped it will establish a model for further replicable investigations of this type.

Information required in response to the questions listed above will be secured by the use of Sellitz's "experience survey." Persons knowledgeable about sports in this country will be interviewed (i.e., athletes, coaches, physical education leaders, sports clubs and association officials, and members of the Ministry of Education). They will be quizzed about sports preferences, attitudes, and behaviors of the people of this country.

A selection of sporting events will be observed and analyzed in the same way an anthropologist observes a religious ceremony.

A content analysis will be made of published sports news in various publications to ascertain the nature of any political content which might be included. Additional clues will be sought concerning how the people think and feel about sports.

The analysis of the data collected in this study of sports phenomena as they relate to political phenomena will lead to recommendations for a trial pilot program. In this pilot program sports and physical education variables would be manipulated in such a way as to promote greater political socialization and integration.

The results of this investigation and an assessment of the results of the pilot study should produce tenable hypotheses which can be tested in subsequent investigations.

Establishing and Developing College Soccer

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Growth of Soccer

Throughout most of the world soccer occupies a position as the country's "national sports pastime." The immense popularity of the sport is revealed by the more than 110 countries and 15-25 million participants, and some estimated 500 million spectators that annually observe soccer. As many as 250,000 fans have reportedly attended a single game in some countries. It has not been until recent years, however, that soccer has enjoyed much enthusiasm in the United States. This year more than five hundred colleges and universities and over two thousand high schools have fielded teams. These teams now represent every geographical section of the United States. At present soccer is one of the fastest growing intercollegiate and interscholastic sports in this country.

The recent growth of soccer is attributed to several reasons. One of the more significant factors is cost. At a time when athletics are becoming more and more of a business, soccer is comparatively inexpensive. The necessary facilities and equipment is relatively simple. In addition, soccer players have not yet joined the ranks of highly sought-after athletes. Athletic scholarships and significant recruiting is limited to a small minority of schools. Soccer remains then as one of the more real amateur sports. This is an especially important consideration to those smaller colleges and universities that cannot support or be supported by those more expensive sports.

Another factor contributing to the growth of soccer is that it permits large numbers of participants. As many as sixty to eighty players can easily be accommodated on two fields. In fact, one school known to the author fielded a hundred players during a single season. Few sports can handle such large numbers without extensive facilities. In addition to providing large numbers the opportunity for vigorous activity, soccer is also inviting in that it places no premium on size. It is one of the few team sports which thereby affords the small man an equal chance to play and excel.

Soccer has also gained in popularity since it is a sport that promotes health and fitness. With added interest in physical fitness in recent years many schools are attracted to such a vigorous type game. The nature of soccer provides for continuous movement and thus has tremendous value as an endurance activity. It is especially conducive to developing cardio-respiratory endurance which is the most critical factor in a physical fitness program. In fact, it is not unusual to observe persons of various ethnic groups continuing to play soccer for exercise and fun into their later years. Another factor relating to positive health is that soccer is relatively free from serious injury. A recent study conducted by the author found few serious injuries attributed to the game. This is of major concern to the development of youth programs and is one of the reasons why youth leagues are becoming particularly popular.

Finally, and most important, soccer is rapidly growing because it is fun to play. It combines individual effort and team coordination into an exciting and fast moving activity. It is a real challenge to its participants in that it stresses skills that are uncommon to American sports.

Team Development

The development of college soccer teams has been quite unique and rather interesting to observe. Many schools have relied heavily upon the experience of foreign students in building their program. Although these players are usually experienced and skillful, they often find it difficult to adjust to the American style of play and coaching. Foreign players are often not regimented to our training scheme and are not accustomed to the high competitive spirit and rigid practice schedule associated with varsity athletics.

The aggressive style of play, more typical of the less experienced American players, is also subject to criticism by many of these foreign athletes. They are often not used to this type game, and become concerned over the possibility of injury. As a result, such players are often less aggressive than their American counterparts. On the other hand, certain coaches have had a high degree of success in building their teams with foreign players. They have been able to develop a cohesiveness in their play and have avoided these adjustment problems.

While some teams are dominated by foreign personnel, others rely more heavily on those players who have gained their experience in this country's interscholastic programs. This is most prevalent in those areas where high school soccer is more widely established. At present, this is more typical of the Eastern schools, and certain select areas that can draw heavily from such pre-college programs. Although usually less experienced and less highly skilled than the foreign players, these athletes are better indoctrinated into the American Sports Tradition and, as a result, often make more effective players.

In comparing the success of teams dominated by foreign personnel to those comprised mainly of American players, one can argue both sides. Such teams as Michigan State, University of San Francisco, Long Island University, and U.C.L.A. have been extremely successful while utilizing mostly experienced foreign players in their programs. On the other hand, St. Louis University which has won six of ten N.C.A.A. championship games and has been runner-up on two other occasions has had only one foreign player in this time. Its players have been the product of a highly developed pre-college program. Other colleges such as the Service Academies, Quincy College, Brockport, and Cortland have also enjoyed a high degree of success with mainly American players.

Finally, there remain a number of colleges that develop their programs mainly upon inexperienced personnel. These schools rely more heavily upon physical education classes, intramural programs, and an enthusiastic coach for supplying players. One of the most attractive features of college soccer, in fact, is that it is still possible for a student to participate and excel in a varsity athletic program without prior experience. Although usually not as successful in terms of wins and losses as those teams of championship caliber, these teams often develop very respectable programs. In many instances the lack of experience and skill can somewhat be overcome by aggressive playing and a highly coordinated team effort. A highly conditioned team can also compensate for some of the disadvantages of inexperience.

Conditioning

One of the most important phases in training soccer players, thus, is developing a sound physical conditioning program. It is of little value to possess skills and understand strategy if the player is unable to meet the physical demands of the game. Soccer is a sport that requires a high level of physical fitness. Such fitness includes muscular and cardio-respiratory endurance, speed, strength, power, flexibility, and balance. A thorough conditioning program must take each of these aspects into consideration.

It must be emphasized that this conditioning involves more than just the actual competitive season. The pre-season, in-season, and post-season periods are all vital parts to the ultimate success of Fall competition. Each phase has its individual purpose and should be dealt with separately.

Pre-Season Conditioning

Preparation for the Fall season begins during the summer months. At this time the athletes initiate a generalized conditioning program that permits several possible workouts. The primary objective of this phase is the general improvement of muscular and cardio-respiratory endurance. To accomplish this objective the workouts should concentrate on easy distance running emphasizing relaxation, deep breathing, and enjoyment. During this phase the running should be as much fun as possible. Running at the beach or in the woods effectively serves this purpose. This part of the program should consist of at least three days of training per week for about four to six weeks. The running distances should be progressively increased up to four or five miles per workout.

Pre-Season Conditioning Schedule

It should be emphasized at this point that all workouts should be preceded by at least fifteen minutes of warm-up activity. This should include easy jogging and exercises designed to improve flexibility. It is also important to conclude each training session with a 10-15 minute tapering-off period. This is necessary to maintain efficient circulation, thus avoiding post-workout trauma. (See Fig. 1)

The second phase of pre-season conditioning places more emphasis upon speedwork. This part of the program does not begin until earlier training has sufficiently prepared the athlete for efforts of maximal intensity. This reduces the possibility of injury – especially pulled hamstring and quadricep muscles. Even as the athlete is conditioned for sprintwork, however, care should be exercised to gradually increase speed, rather than going all out on the first attempt.

In order to improve one's speed it is necessary to run repeated short sprints of 40 to 70 yards at maximal intensity. The number of repetitions should vary from 7-15. Sprintwork of greater than 70 yards will develop endurance, but does not improve speed. This is true since peak sprint speed is attained between 40 and 70 yards, thus, making longer distances impractical and unnecessary. The endurance factor, meanwhile, will also be improved as a result of the repetitions. In any event, only by gradually increasing the tempo of the workouts will any improvements result. This phase of conditioning should last 3-4 weeks and lead into the actual playing season. As more emphasis is placed on speedwork, additional warm-up is important. The endurance running should be maintained, but to a lesser degree. Two to three miles will satisfactorily supplement the sprinting.

In-Season Conditioning

Conditioning during the competitive season has two objectives: 1) to continue improving upon fitness, and 2) to avoid fatigue. Most coaches expect to get their players to a high level of fitness at an early date, and then to continue this trend at a more modest rate of improvement throughout the remainder of the season. In reality, however, unless certain precautions are adopted the early season improvements may be followed by a plateauing and quite often a reversal of this trend. This reversal of fitness denotes fatigue. The onset of such fatigue is not an unusual occurrence, and has been observed by numerous coaches of endurance type sports, e.g., swimming, track, cycling, basketball, and soccer. If the symptoms of fatigue are recognized and corrected, the athlete can again make improvements, otherwise, this downward trend will continue.

Workout #1	Workout #2	Workout #3
run easy ½ mile; walk and jog till recovery;* repeat twice more	run easy ½ mile; walk and jog till recovery; repeat three times more	run easy 1 mile; walk and jog till recovery; run ¾ mile; walk and jog till recovery; run ½ mile; walk and jog till recovery
#4 run 1 mile; walk and jog ¼; repeat twice more	#5 same as previous workout	#6 run 1½ miles; walk and jog 10 minutes; repeat again
#7 run 2 miles; walk and jog 1 mile	#8 run 2 miles; walk and jog till recovery; run 1 mile; walk and jog till recovery run ½ mile	#9 run easy ½ mile; run three miles; walk and jog ½ mile
#10 same as previous workout	#11 run easy ½ mile; five minute walk and jog; run 3½ miles	#12 same as previous workout
#13 run easy ½ mile; walk and jog minutes; run 4 miles	#14 same as previous workout	#15 5 mile run

*Recovery is attained when the heart rate approximates 125/min.

Figure 1. Pre-Season Workouts[1]

The training emphasis necessarily shifts to scrimmage and drill type practices as the playing season begins. It is generally assumed that the running in this type practice substitutes for more formalized sprinting, and serves to further condition the players. Such assumptions, however, often prove to be false unless the principle of progressive increase of practice workload continues. With this in mind, it is good coaching technique to increase the length of the scrimmage sessions as the season progresses. At the same time, however, the coach cannot plan upon all-out scrimmage practices every day. Scrimmage situations can easily be modified in order to lessen the work output on certain days. Too many all-out efforts with too little rest will most assuredly lead to fatigue. In addition, special consideration should be given to the increase in study time, more common in the latter part of the season. An occasional day off is very valuable in this regard.

*Fatigue.*The result of less sleep and too many all-out practices is fatigue. Such fatigue is characterized by the following symptoms:

1) a feeling of tiredness.
2) obvious loss of interest in activity.
3) increased effort required to perform usual tasks.
4) increased irritability and emotional instability.
5) noticeable lethargy at practice.
6) greater number of minor injuries – more complaints to the trainer.
7) increase of absences and latenesses to practice.

These are some of the more obvious indications that an alert coach will quickly observe and attempt ot rectify.

How to Avoid Fatigue. Some of the methods for avoiding the onset of fatigue are as follows:

1) efforts of great intensity should be of short duration.
2) lengthy practice sessions must include a sufficient number of rest periods.
3) sufficient warm-up procedures should precede all practices.
4) changes of activity should be provided – a change of one's position is often effective.
5) exposure to extreme fatigue should be followed by adequate recuperation time.
6) a proper training régime (sleep and diet) is essential.
7) a light practice or a day off should precede and follow each game.
8) vitamin supplements are beneficial. These include vitamin c, vitamin b complex and wheat germ dosages.

Post-Season Conditioning

Conditioning during the off-season has two specific purposes. First, the off-season months should be used to maintain a modest level of endurance. Second, it is during this time that the emphasis shifts to those items previously neglected. These include: strength, power, agility, and flexibility.

Conditioning Program

Following the competitive season a variety in training is desirable. The emphasis, thus, again shifts to a different type program. In addition, it is important that the athletes be given more time for studies and relaxation. This program, then, should be less strenuous than the in season phase.

As before, all workouts should be preceded by 10-15 minutes warm-up, and followed by an equal amount of time for tapering-off. Workouts should be conducted at least three days per week. The athlete's running endurance is maintained by supplementing each workout with 1-2 miles continuous running.

Leg Strength. The objective is to increase the strength of those muscles utilized in kicking (quadriceps).

The following weight training exercises specifically develop the above muscle group.

1) Half Squats
   a. The barbell on the top of the shoulders across the back of the neck.
   b. The heels are elevated and supported about two inches from the floor to aid in balance.
   c. The toes are pointed straight ahead.
   d. The lifter lowers to a 90° angle in the knee and rises to a standing position. The back should be kept straight throughout.

When using a heavy weight it is suggested to have a person assisting in lifting the weight to and from the shoulders.

The weight of the barbell is determined by the performer's ability. A minimum of six and a maximum of twelve repetitions should be able to be completed. More than twelve indicates that greater weight is necessary, and less than six indicates that less weight is necessary. Three sets of 6-12 repetitions are sufficient.

2) Knee Extension

a. Weights are attached to a double iron boot.
b. Lifter is sitting on a table with the lower legs over the side.
c. The weight is lifted to a 180° angle in the knee, and lowered to the starting position.

Selecting the proper weight, the number of sets and the number of repetitions is the same as previous.

Ankle Strength. In increasing strength at the ankle joint the intention is to reduce the possibility of sprains and the incidence of shin splints. The following accomplishes these objectives:

1) Toe Raises

a. The barbell is in the same position as in the half squat.
b. The feet are shoulder width and the toes are straight ahead.
c. The lifter raises up on the toes and returns to the starting position.

Abdominal Strength. The objective is to strengthen the muscles of the stomach area in order to reduce the shock absorbed when a kicked ball makes impact at the abdomen.

This is accomplished by the following:

1) Leg Raises

a. Person assumes a supine position.
b. The legs are lifted from 6" to a foot from the ground, held for 5-15 seconds, and returned to starting position.
c. Knees are held straight.
d. Hands are behind the head.

2) Sit-Ups

a. Weight is held in place behind the neck, or the performer can position himself on an incline.
b. The knees are bent until the feet are flat on the ground.
c. Trunk is slowly lifted to 90° and slowly returned to the starting position.

Ten to twenty leg raises and sit-ups are adequate. In order to improve strength, fewer repetitions with more resistance is needed.

Neck Strength. By increasing neck strength one can improve heading ability.

Front and back bridging are recommended to develop neck strength.

a. Person assumes a supine position.
b. Back is arched and the body is elevated. Head and feet maintain contact with ground.
c. The hands should be used for additional support at the outset. As the muscles are strengthened, less use of the hands will be required.
d. Repeat each exercise 2-3 times for thirty seconds to one minute.

Power. The objective is to increase the leg power and enhance the kicking ability. Leg power is increased by:

1) Vertical Jumping

The performer flexes at the knee to 90°, and jumps for maximal height.

2) Standing Broad Jump

Similar to above skill, but jumping for distance. Five to ten of each of these should be completed.

Agility. The objective is to improve one's ability for quick changes in direction. The necessity of quick direction change is vital to the soccer player.

Two exercises are described to improve agility:

1) Agility Running

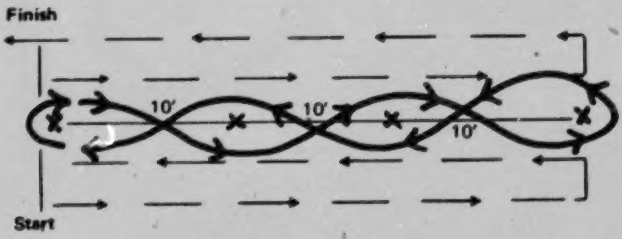

Figure 2. Agility Run Course

The subject assumes a prone position behind the starting line with arms flexed and hands outside shoulders. At the signal, the subject gets to feet and sprints 30', touches or crosses the far line, turns and sprints back to starting line. He then weaves in and out between 4 chairs spaced 10' apart to the far line and back. The subject then sprints to the far line, stops, turns, and sprints back to the finish.

2) Six Count Agility

a. Start from standing position.
b. Assume squat position with hands on floor outside of legs.
c. Extend legs to rear into a push-up position.
d. Shoot legs through or around arms to a reverse push-up position.
e. Turn over to position c and then return to position b.
f. Complete exercise by returning to position a.

The objective is to perform as many as possible in 20 seconds.

Each of these exercises should be performed 2-3 times at each workout.

Flexibility. The objective is to increase the range of motion at the hip joint. This is desirable to permit a longer pendular arc and the potential for greater speed and force throughout the kicking action. Also, by increasing range of motion the possibility of muscle pulls is reduced. This is especially true for the quadriceps, hamstrings, and lower back muscles.

The following four exercises are means of improving such flexibility.

1) Toe Touching

Starting in an upright position, bend forward at the waist extending hands to floor and return to starting position. It is important to control the movement by performing slowly. Perform 10 repetitions keeping knees straight throughout.

2) Hamstring Stretch

From a front leaning position bring one leg forward to a position under the chest. The rear leg is extended. Perform 10 repetitions with each leg.

3) Leg Extensions

The upper body is in a prone position atop a table. Legs are extended over the edge of the table. Hold onto table with both hands and raise legs as high as possible without bending the knees. Repeat 10 times.

4) Back Hyperextension

Assume a prone position with hands behind the head. The upper half is extended over the edge of the table. Legs are held by a strap or an assistant. The head and trunk are lifted maximally in a slow controlled movement. Perform 10-12 repetitions.

Each of the flexibility routines should be performed slowly and carefully. The movements must be controlled at all times to eliminate muscle strains.

In summary, it must be realized that there are additional exercises that may be incorporated into such a conditioning program. This is only a sample of such exercises that improve upon specific features important to soccer players. The important points to remember in any program, however, are:

1) muscular and cardio-respiratory endurance, strength, speed, power, flexibility and balance must *all* be considered.
2) the program must incorporate progressive increase of resistance.
3) adequate warm-up is important.
4) a variety in the program is valuable.
5) sufficient periods of rest must accompany periods of hard exercise.

First International Seminar on the History of Physical Education and Sport

Earle F. Zeigler
University of Illinois

From April 9-11, 1968, the First International Seminar on the History of Physical Education and Sport was held at the Wingate Institute near Tel Aviv, Israel. This truly outstanding event in the field of physical education was attended by more than one hundred people from seventeen countries (including a significant number present from Israel itself). The United States and Canada were each very well represented, and this delegation of more than twenty men and women assembled at Kennedy International Airport on Saturday, April 6.

The Seminar itself was a cooperative effort among the Wingate Institute, International Council on Sport and Physical Education (ICSPE) in cooperation with the International Council on Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (ICHPER) and the Federation International d'Education Physique (FIEP), the Israeli Minister of Education and Culture, and the Sport and Physical Education Authority of the Israeli Ministry. Too much cannot be said about the hospitality and the outstanding organizational effort of Dr. Uriel Simri and his associates at the Wingate Institute. This writer rates the experience as one of the finest intellectual and socializing experiences he has ever had. There is every reason to believe that this sentiment would be echoed by almost all of those in attendance from the North American continent.

Early in the morning of the first day at Wingate, but prior to the first formal session held on the evening of April 9, the delegates were privileged to meet with some of the present and past leaders of physical education and sport of Israel. Six of these gentlemen prepared short papers to be delivered at this time, and the abstracts of these presentations were published and presented in pamphlet form to the delegates. The publication was entitled "Physical Education and Sport in Israel," and the titles of the various presentations and the names of the authors are as follows:

1) "The Beginning of Physical Education and Sport in Modern Israel" – Jehoshua Alouf, Former Chief Supervisor of Physical Education
2) "The Sport and Physical Education Authority" – Asael Ben-David, Director of the Sport and Physical Education Authority
3) "Physical Education in the Elementary Schools, and Physical Education Teacher Training" – Raphael Panon, Chief Supervisor of Physical Education
4) "Physical Education and Premilitary Training in High-Schools" – Haim Wein, Chief Supervisor of Physical Education
5) "Sport in Israel" – Emanuel Gill, Chairman of Israel Sport Federation
6) "The Wingate Institute for Physical Education" – Eng. Baruch Bagg, Director of Wingate Institute

The Formal Opening Session of the Seminar was chaired by Dr. Ernst Jokl, who represented the Scientific Committee of ICSPE, and brief presentations were made by Dr. Dorothy S. Ainsworth, Honorary-President of ICHPER; Dr. Pierre Seurin, Secretary-General of FIEP; Dr. R. William Jones, Secretary-General of ICSPE; Dr. Avraham Bar-Menahem, Mayor of Netanya (within whose borders the Wingate Institute is situated); and Mr. Aharon Yadlin, Deputy Minister of Education and Culture (representing the Minister). The evening was concluded by a stirring presentation entitled "Archaeology and the Bible," which featured Professor Nelson Glueck of the Hebrew Union Seminary in Cincinnati, Ohio.

Starting on Wednesday morning, April 10, presentations of varying length were made by the delegates whose papers (and a time allotment for presentation) had been approved earlier by the Organizing Committee. Abstracts of a number of these papers had been published by the Organizing Committee earlier and were made available to the delegates when they arrived. In addition to the names of the individuals and the titles of the papers presented by those in attendance from North America, a few statements about each presentation will be given (where possible). The papers were presented *in the following order:*

1) "Persistent Historical Problems in Physical Education and Sport" – Earle F. Zeigler, University of Illinois.

   In the introduction it was stressed that there were undoubtedly some "common denominators" upon which professionals in the field of physical education and sport can agree. A listing of some seven possible common denominators was offered. The need for the sport and physical education historian to join in with the specialist in physical education and sport philosophy, as well as the comparative education scholar, was mentioned. The writer stressed further a persistent historical problems approach that he has employed in his work. A persistent problem was described as one that recurs again and again down through the ages (e.g., the influence of politics on physical education and sport).

2) "Pax Olympica" – Ernst Jokl, University of Kentucky

   In an interesting illustrated slide lecture, Professor Jokl explained how in his opinion the Olympic Games have served as a great unifying force for world peace and improved international relations. (not in abstracts pamphlet)

3) "Innovations in Oral History" – Marianna Trekell, University of Illinois

   Although not actually part of the official program, Professor Trekell was given a special place and time to present "Learning to Listen – Listening to Learn" to the delegates to the Seminar. She explained how oral history is now being used at Illinois to gather pertinent and valuable historical information about physical education and sport. This type of inquiry includes obtaining of source material, raw historical data, through tape-recorded interviews with persons who have made, and are making, important contributions to the field. It was stressed that this technique of historical research should help to bridge certain gaps in the history of the field. Still further, by collecting these data while they are still "warm," the historian may be able to understand the field's historical background better.

4) "Architecture and Sports" – John R. Schleppi, University of Dayton

   The purpose of this study was the investigation of the historical aspects of stadia and other sports structures. Stadia in early Greece were oriented toward the participant, but they became definitely spectator-oriented with the Romans. There were no permanent sports structures from 700 to 1800 A.D. When the building of stadia was resumed in the nineteenth century, the architecture of the period exerted a strong influence on design of the structures. Now there is a strong influence from the area of sports architecture, after a period in which sports structures paralleled the architectural trends (1920-1960). Europe had led the world in sports architecture, but since World War I there has been a development of an "international style" in this area.

5) "Sports and Games in the Minoan Period" – Maxwell L. Howell and Denise Palmer, University of Alberta

The archeological evidence of sports and games in the Minoan Period (app. 3000-1200 B.C.) was examined. The evidence supported the view that a considerable number of games were played. It was not possible to support Ridington's conclusion that the Minoan-Mycenaean civilization was of notable influence in the Greek athletic festival. There is no question, however, but that it did appear to have some influence. Of necessity there must be some vagueness in studies such as this, as the picture of sports and games in this period is incomplete and undoubtedly will always be so.

6) "Reflections from Round Hill" – Bruce L. Bennett, The Ohio State University

The Round Hill School existed in Northampton, Massachusetts from 1823 to 1834 and was founded by Joseph Cogswell and George Bancroft. Round Hill was the first school in the United States to have a teacher of physical education, the first to have physical education as part of the curriculum, and the first institution to introduce German gymnastics. This experiment in education was significant because it gave evidence that physical education and the pursuit of academic excellence are perfectly compatible in a school environment. Furthermore, moral and religious training were integrated with physical education. Thirdly, Joseph Cogswell was a master teacher who approached teaching as the highest of all occupations.

7) "The Naismith Story" – John L. Dewar, St. Francis Xavier University, Canada

The story of Dr. James Naismith, inventor of the game of basketball, was presented in three periods: (1) Upper Canada from 1861-1890; (2) New England from 1891 to 1898; and (3) Central Plain of the United States from 1899-1939. As a child and young man, Naismith learned early the rigors of pioneer life in the Ottawa Valley. He was an outstanding performer in football, gymnastics, and lacrosse at McGill University. He entered the field of physical education because he believed that he could assist youth to discover moral as well as physical strength through sports and exercise. He is remembered primarily for the game he invented, but he was revered for his idealism, humility, and honesty.

8) "Sports and Games in Canadian Life Prior to Confederation" – Nancy and Maxwell L. Howell, University of Alberta

Participation in sports and games prior to Confederation (1867) gave relief to monotony and served as an outlet for the desire for pleasure. The physical pleasures of participation were accompanied by the social pleasures of meeting with friends, as well as by the enjoyment of the feasts and dances which were often arranged in conjunction with sports meetings. Climate and terrain exerted a great influence on the recreational activities that could be made available, and transportation difficulties resulted in sports being conducted quite close to the homes of the prospective participants. The native Indians, the English, the Scotsmen, and the French all had their favorite sporting activities. By the year of Confederation, life provided a bit more free time, and the people – young and old – pursued sport increasingly as an outlet for their adventurous spirits.

9) "Nationalism and American Sport, 1870-1900" – Ralph R. Ricker, The Pennsylvania State University

A significant spirit of nationalism gradually developed in the United States during the nineteenth century, a time when the country grew from a rural to an urban industrial economy. The teams and clubs which the young American sportsmen joined were probably affiliated with national groups holding national charters. Many first and second generation Americans found athletic contests an excellent way to become part of the new country and to make a contribution to the growing national spirit.

10) "Robert Tait McKenzie, M.D." – James A. P. Day, Simon Fraser University, Canada

Tait McKenzie was unique among North American physical educators because of his outstanding accomplishments in three diverse fields of endeavor: physical education, medicine, and sculpture. There is no doubt but that McKenzie's stature as an artist contributed to his value to his professions of medicine and physical education. He has been honored most highly by the profession of physical education in both Canada and the United States. He taught at both McGill University and the University of Pennsylvania, and was the first President of the American Academy of Physical Education (1930-1938), and also as the President of the American Physical Education Association (1912-1915). Always the perfect gentleman, he epitomized the complete person at peace with himself and the world.

11) "Rubber Ball Games of Central America" – Allan E. Cox, Maxwell L. Howell, and Robert G. Glassford, University of Alberta

Within the cultures of Mesoamerica, Arizona, and the Greater Antilles, rubber ball games, played within the confines of structured courts, have received considerable attention from anthropologists and archeologists. This study examined the available evidence concerning games played with these rubber balls from the standpoint of (1) the wide variations in playing methods strongly suggested by extreme variations in the structure of the ballcourts; (2) the secular function of the games within and between areas; and (3) the probable use of playing equipment. It was suggested that the way has been prepared for research into form and function of these games rather than origin and diffusion. (not available in pamphlet of abstracts)

In addition to the experiences of the Seminar and its accompanying meetings, arrangements were made for an outstanding series of tours to Jerusalem, Caesarea, Tel Aviv, Negev and the Dead Sea – including the famed Massada, Nazareth and the Galilee, and Haifa, Acre, and the Lebanese Border. In Greece the group broke up into several parties and visited such sites as the Acropolis, the National Archeological Museum in Athens, Cape Sounion, Corinth, Olympia, Delphi, and other points. Bruce Bennett, the AAHPER Historian, served as the official representative of our Association in Washington, D.C. All in all, it was an unforgettable experience and will be of inestimable value to those particularly concerned with the history of physical education and sport. (It also provided great insight into the continuing problem between the Jews and the Arabs.)

Plans are being made already for future seminars of this type. Professor Dr. Frantisek Krátký, of the Charles University in Prague, is Chairman of the ICSPE Committee on the History of Physical Education and Sport. He has plans for the writing of a truly international history of physical education. There is the possibility further of the development of a group of physical education and sport historians with certain specified criteria for membership.

At the closing ceremony of the Seminar, the delegates gave a standing ovation to Dr. Uriel Simri, the Deputy Director of Wingate Institute, for the truly prodigious effort he had made to see to it that the Seminar would be such a success. He thanked the group and expressed his personal appreciation to all of his associates who had helped so much as well. The Proceedings will be published in 1969, and may be ordered immediately from Dr. U. Simri, Wingate Institute, Wingate Post Office, Israel. The price is $7.00 (U.S.A.).

In attendance from North America were the following individuals:

Dorothy S. Ainsworth	15 Barrett Place, Northampton, Mass.
Bruce L. Bennett	The Ohio State University
James A.P. Day	Simon Fraser University, British Columbia
John L. Dewar	St. Francis Xavier Univ., Nova Scotia
Barbara E. Forker	Iowa State University
Warren P. Fraleigh	San Jose State College
Robert G. Glassford	The University of Alberta
Leona Holbrook	Brigham Young University
Frederick J. Holter	West Virginia University
Maxwell L. Howell	The University of Alberta
Mrs. M.L. Howell (Nancy)	The University of Alberta
Ernst Jokl	University of Kentucky
Robert Lorsgaard	Ball State University
Hyman Krakower	Rockville Centre, New York (CCNY)
Matthew C. Resick	Kent State University
Ralph R. Ricker	The Pennsylvania State University
Ruth Schellberg	Mankato State College
John R. Schleppi	University of Dayton
Gusta Singer	New York City
Marianna Trekell	University of Illinois
Earle F. Zeigler	University of Illinois

1879: The Beginning of an Era in American Sport

Guy M. Lewis
University of Massachusetts

Modern America emerged during the final quarter of the Nineteenth Century but only a few individuals recognized the importance of the age in which they were living. One of those who did was James A. Garfield. In an address at Lake Chautauqua in 1880 he attempted to draw attention to the fact that America stood on the threshold of a new age when he remarked that the entire struggle of the human race was divided into two chapters: the fight to get leisure was one and the question of what to do with it the other. Garfield's concern that his fellow countrymen might render meaningless the economic successes had no noticeable impact upon a people caught-up in the pursuit of the "full life."

It was at this point that sport was made an important part of life in America. In the years prior to the 1875-85 decade sport had been largely limited to a comparatively small leisure class; the average American had few opportunities to become involved as either participant or spectator. By 1885 the expanded "fashionable set" had increased the number of acceptable activities to play and view, and the emerging middle class had also adopted spectator and participant sports as diversions. New sports were added to those instituted earlier, and most of them were formalized for the purpose of promotion through the creation of associations and clubs. A significant number of these developments took place in 1879, the beginning of an era in American sport.

Tremendous economic growth during the post civil war years resulted in complete freedom from work for many Americans and more free time and discretionary income for an even larger number of others. With the increase in the leisure class and the creation of a middle class, hundreds of thousands of Americans were faced with the question of what to do with their time and money.

Economic factors other than the increase in income effected the sports movement. In search of opportunity immigrants and migrants doubled urban population between 1880 and 1900. Many immigrants created formal organizations for the purpose of preserving the customs and practices, including sports, of their former homeland. Transplanted Americans also searched for identity in the new environment, a quest that many resolved by watching others play games. Population centers made possible the successful promotion of spectator and participant sports dependent upon attracting those who could not afford a large investment of money or time. The same group began to pass the responsibility for providing facilities to the tax-payers. Chicago authorities were among the first to adopt the practice when they opened the "Meadow" in Washington Park for team games in 1876 and had tennis courts constructed ten years later.

Residents of cities supported the newspapers which first made the reporting of sports a feature of the daily press. In most cases, editors of New York newspapers developed practices which later became standard throughout the country. The *Sun's* editors were made aware of the value of reporting sports when circulation doubled with the appearance of accounts of walking matches. Joseph Pulitzer purchased the *World* in 1883 and developed the first sports page as a part of his plan to defeat the *Sun* and *Herald* in a circulation war. In using sport to increase circulation editors were also involved in the promotion of sport.

Transportation systems contributed in many ways to the rise of sport. Those activities dependent upon inter-city travel were greatly aided by the railroad. It not only connected urban areas for baseball clubs but also made possible the development of sufficiently varied schedules to stimulate interest in the "home-stand" of each team. The availability of transportation was also largely responsible for the success of such periodic spectator events as boxing and horse racing. With it, beaches, lakes, resorts, hunting and fishing areas, and other recreational locations were within reach of the middle class. Excursions became a popular and profitable feature of railroad traffic. The expansion of amateur leagues within the city and the increased use of nearby resorts were closely associated with the development of adequate intra-city transportation.

Not all sports introduced were adopted and those receiving acceptance were not given an equal amount of support. The amount of appeal each sport had for the membership of either the leisure or middle classes determined both approval and the number of devotees. Those sports requiring a sufficient expenditure in time, facilities and equipment to make them exclusive found favor among the wealthy. In addition, the activities, whether participant or spectator, generally were suitable for mixed company. In contrast to the "fashionable set," the middle class turned to sports which required a greater degree of physical skill and stamina. But, in complete accord with the values of the wealthy, social intercourse was also an important factor in the preferences expressed by those of moderate means. Often, the stratification of sport was altered by changing conditions. Horse racing was governed by the wealthy but its expansion was due to the patronage of the average citizen. After a brief period of exclusiveness, entrepreneurs made roller skating available to the masses, and public officials created opportunities to participate in tennis for those not able to afford membership in a club. Without a significant change in the price of equipment, the improved economic situation made possible the widespread adoption of the previously exclusive sport of cycling.

Yachting, canoeing, horse racing, fox hunting, horse shows, road driving, coaching, dog shows, field trials, polo, tennis, archery, golf and cricket were sports of the upper class. Although each qualified as exclusive, some were more preferable than others and a distinction was made according to the nature of participation. Established members of the leisure class did not fully approve of participation by the "newly elected" or "fashionable set" in ball games and cycling. There was also concern because the same group made ownership concern rather than true participation the basis for involvement in sport. To the "old guard" there was an important difference between those who sailed their own yacht and those who hired a crew.

Competition for the America's Cup and ocean racing stimulated activity in yachting. The number of clubs holding annual races increased from fifteen to one hundred and twenty-five during the twenty year period after 1869. Another water sport began when yachtsmen, inspired by accounts of tours by John Macgregor and Warrington Baden-Powell, organized the New York Canoe Club in 1871. Sailing canoes rapidly captured the imagination of others. The American Canoe Association was formed in 1880, and six years later the New York Canoe Club put into competition the International Challenge Trophy.

In the 1860's John Morrissey and his associates, developers of Saratoga as a resort, reclaimed horse racing for the leisure class. The success of the Saratoga venture prompted dedicated sportsmen to return the sport to New York City, and in 1866 they opened Jerome Park. Based upon practices established at Jerome Park, tracks were opened throughout the country, controlled by men of substance and character. Thoroughbred racing enjoyed an era of unprecedented prosperity during the decade after 1885.

The leisure class also revived fox hunting in 1874 and conducted the first national horse show in 1883. Organized road driving, begun in 1869, gained widespread acceptance during the 1880's, and, after the formation of the New York Club in 1875, coaching became a popular diversion in the major cities of the country. The first annual bench show of the Westminister Kennel Club was held in 1877, and one year later the first field trials were conducted for pointers.

James G. Bennett, Jr. introduced polo in 1873 and the same year matches were staged at a riding academy. Three years later matches were conducted at the Jerome Park Race Course by members of the recently organized Westchester and New York clubs. Tremendous impetus was given the sport by the participation of the Westchester Club in the first "Hurlingham Cup" match in 1886. Numerous other clubs came into existence but it was 1890 before players formed the United States Polo Association.

One year after the birth of the game in England, lawn tennis was played at several clubs in the United States. Cricket clubs in the East quickly adopted the sport and the New Orleans Lawn Tennis Club was founded in 1876. By 1879 members of Chicago's Union Club were playing the sport and several clubs conducted tournaments prior to the formation of the

United States Lawn Tennis Association in 1881. Introduced as an activity for "polite society" a reporter for *Outing Magazine* assured feminine readers that this was too refined a game to offer any attraction to the lower orders of society. A lady who took part in play at tennis would find herself "in the company of persons in whose company she is accustomed to move."

The rebirth of archery followed the publication of Maurice Thompson's *The Wichery of Archery* early in the 1870's. At least twenty-five clubs existed in 1879 when a "large number of ladies and gentlemen of high social position" met in Chicago, organized the National Archery Association and conducted the first national tournament. According to a reporter for *Harper's Weekly* "an air of such refinement and courteous dignity as is not often witnessed by observers of public games characterized everyone connected with the contest."

Charles B. McDonald, an active participant in the formation of the United States Golf Association in 1894, began his attempt to interest friends in the game of golf in 1879. His efforts did not result in the establishment of the sport but with the involvement of others in its promotion, golf became a popular diversion of the leisure class during the 1890's.

English immigrants almost succeeded in establishing cricket as the national sport, but the sport never gained the approval of the young people and its appeal as a spectator event was limited to international matches. The year 1879 was notable for the visits to America of the most prominent English and Irish professional and amateur elevens. During the same year the Cricketers' Association of the United States sponsored contests with Canadian teams. During the 1880's additional clubs and leagues were organized and the sport was reasonably popular for a decade. However, the average citizen always regarded it a sport for the leisure class.

Members of the middle class found the existing sports of swimming, ice skating and bowling to be a pleasant way to spend free time in mixed company. For the same reason they made "crazes" of croquet, roller skating and cycling. In most instances the sports were competitive as well as recreational and some were turned into spectator events.

The 1880's marked the beginning of competitive swimming and a tremendous increase in the number of "bathers" and recreational swimmers. Until this period the sport was confined to the few daring boys who frequented the rivers and those affluent enough to afford the accommodations of floating baths (early swimming pools) and "Watering places."

The feats of captain Matthew Webb, an Englishman, and captain Paul Boyton, an American, turned the attention of Americans to competitive swimming. On August 24 and 25, Webb swam the English Channel and became a national hero. Everyone considered it a first until Boyton claimed the honor. He had crossed the channel on April 10, 1875 but, in so doing, had been equipped with an inflated rubber suit, fins and a kayak-style paddle. Boyton's feat was discredited but the decision had little effect upon regard Americans held for the athlete. In 1879, Webb, after a series of successful demonstrations in England, came to the United States. On August 13, he swam sixteen miles in eight hours and on August 22 he settled many arguments when he defeated the fully-equipped Boyton at Newport. Two years later he out-swam George H. Wade, "the champion ocean swimmer of America" in a five-mile match.

A national association was founded in 1878 for the purpose of promoting the sport of swimming. One year earlier the New York Athletic Club had sponsored a championship meet, probably the first conducted by a sports association. In 1883 the same club began to hold meets on a regular basis.

America had sufficient bodies of water but it was not until the development of inexpensive and efficient rail transportation that they were made available to the general population. In 1879 George C. Tilyou first recognized the potential of a "watering place" for the "masses." He later labeled Coney Island "The Pioneer Family Resort." The success of the popular recreation area prompted other promoters to develop similar facilities for the average man. Enjoying the beach was soon no longer restricted to those rich enough to spend the season at Newport or other fashionable retreats. Excursion rates and reasonably priced accommodations placed the new resorts within the financial potential of the middle class.

Long a popular but unorganized pastime, ice skating was first promoted by the Philadelphia Skating Club and Humane Society (1849). The New York Skating Club was founded in 1861, and seven years later the American Skating Congress attempted to establish rules for competitive events. The sport grew rapidly during the 1870's after manufacturers reduced the charge for steel runners that had cost thirty dollars when first introduced in 1850, and, Jackson Haines, "The American Skating King," popularized figure skating. Club activity increased and permanent organizations were established to control speed skating in 1884, United States Skating Association, and figure skating in 1886, National Amateur Skating Association.

The tavern sport of out-of-doors bowling during the Colonial era was transformed into an independent enterprise when entrepreneurs constructed indoor facilities during the late antebellum period. By removing the sport from an association with drinking and gambling, proprietors made it an accepted activity. It even received the patronage of "fashionable" ladies and gentlemen during the 1880's. From the formation of the National Bowling League in 1875 until unsavory elements reclaimed it during the 1890's, bowling held the interest of a large number of Americans.

"Fashionable society" followed the example of the French and English and made croquet a popular diversion at "watering places." During the 1870's it became a "rage" among the middle class and no respectable home was without a lawn prepared for play and the necessary equipment. Since it appealed to both sexes or because it provided an opportunity for them to enjoy companionship while being amused, croquet was known as the "courting game." In recognition of the importance of this facet of the game, one manufacturer produced wickets with candle-sockets. The lucrative market resulted in the production of equipment of various standards; each set contained rules drafted by the manufacturing firm. Formal play began with the organization of the Park Place Croquet Club of Brooklyn in 1864. Soon a number of clubs were interested in having a uniform set of rules and in 1879 a meeting was held in Chicago for the purpose of making a distinction between the scientific and ordinary games. Three years later the National Croquet Association was organized and the first of the National Tournaments conducted at Norwich, Connecticut. Competition between individuals, clubs and regions proved popular and this aspect of the sport was continued as roque after croquet had ceased to function as the pastime of the masses.

In 1863, James L. Plimpton, an Englishman, invented the first practical roller skate, and within a few years the new sport had received the approval of the upper-class society. The sport was introduced in the United States by social leaders who hoped it could be restricted to the "educated and refined classes" but they were unable to do so because businessmen found that they could make it profitable by providing for widespread participation. Equipment was inexpensive and abandoned buildings near centers of population could easily be transformed into rinks.

Between 1875 and 1885, rinks in large and small towns across the nation became social centers. It was not difficult to acquire a sufficient amount of skill and the twenty-five to fifty cent admission charge was not restrictive to the ever-increasing number of women and girls and men and boys who welcomed the opportunity to spend time in such a pleasant activity. By 1885 businessmen had invested more than twenty million dollars in roller skating properties. Chicago's Casino Rink opened in 1882 with space for three thousand spectators and one thousand skaters. Six instructors, including two women, taught patrons the new art. Entertainment included Professor A. E. Smith's performance of a repertoire of more than two hundred fancy figures. Bands provided music for waltz-like recreational skating and an effective lighting system added to the romance and excitement. The Olympian Roller Skating Rink in San Francisco advertised five-thousand pair of skates and sixty-nine thousand square feet of hard maple floor. In addition to recreational skating proprietors staged such special events as jumping contests, push ball, racing, "fancy" parties, and polo.

Polo became such a popular attraction that a league with teams from seven middle-western cities was formed in 1882. Within the next few years leagues were also organized in other sections of the country. Spectators supported the sport until the turn of the century.

A new invention, the English-made ordinary bicycle was exhibited at the Centennial Exposition in 1876. Two years later there was only a few machines in the entire country but by 1884 promoters of the pastime had laid the foundations which led to the expansion of cycling to "craze" proportions in the 1890's. In 1880, twenty-nine clubs organized the League of American Wheelmen for the purpose of coordinating efforts to promote the sport. At local and national meets club-members rode military-fashion in parades and participated in riding contests and races. Thousands of spectators and hundreds of participants gathered for the affairs.

Although these club activities did much for the sport during the formative stage, tourism was the dimension that completely transformed cycling. The first annual touring event was conducted in 1879, Wheel Around the Hub. Five years later, the American Division of the Cyclists' Touring Club sponsored its initial outing, and by 1886 this aspect of cycling had become so popular that the League of American Wheelmen created a special division and appointed a tour-master to serve as administrator. Of all developments, the most significant was the world tour of Thomas Stevens during the years 1884-87. He demonstrated the potential of the bicycle as a means to seek adventuresome exploration. The desire for similar experience brought demands for bicycles that would be easier to ride and manufacturers responded by developing the "safety." From this point cycling rapidly gained the acceptance that eventually made it the most influential activity ever in the history of American sports.

Billiards, curling, hunting, fishing, handball, wrestling, and badminton and the team sports of lacrosse and soccer were participant sports for men. Out-of-door clubs were formed during the 1870's and in 1887 the famous Boone and Crockett Club came into existence. The first national angler's tournament, staged by *Forest and Stream* magazine in 1882, led to the formation of the National Rod and Reel Association. Due to the efforts of Phil Casey, an Irish immigrant, professional handball became popular during the 1880's. As was the case with wrestling, amateurs adopted the sport soon after the formation of athletic clubs. The first badminton club was organized by New Yorkers in 1879, six years after the formation of a club at Bath, England. Enthusiasm for the sport was greatest in the Boston area and players were soon engaged in play for the New England Championship. Competition among lacrosse clubs in the late 1870's resulted in the organization of the

United States Amateur Association in 1879, and championship tournaments were staged at the Polo Grounds in New York City during the 1880's. Soccer teams engaged in organized play in the 1870's but it was 1884-85 before they united in the American Football Association.

Riflemen of the nation organized the National Rifle Association on November 24, 1871. Championship meets and international matches, 1874-78, became spectator attractions. In 1879, one hundred and forty clubs maintained outdoor ranges or indoor galleries. Another dimension was added to the sport in 1886 when the National Gun Club conducted the first national tournament for trap shooters at New Orleans. This phase of shooting was popularized by Captain Adam H. Bogardus during the late 1870's.

The sponsorship of athletic games by clubs began with the Boston Caledonian Club in 1853. By 1870 similar clubs were sufficiently numerous to warrant formation of the North American Caledonian Association. Five years later the amateur question led to the organization of the Scottish-American Club. The clubs held dozens of track and field meets weekly throughout most of each year and became a force in regulating, promoting and supervising sports. It was not unusual for national meets to attract 30,000 spectators and nearly half a thousand participants. The Scottish-American Club was a charter member of the first successful national association of amateur athletic clubs.

German immigrants were also involved in the promotion of athletics. The formation of the Cincinnati Turngemeinde in 1848 was the first of the societies organized to foster participation in activities, including gymnastics, of the homeland. Two years later representatives of several societies with a membership of 23,823 persons conducted a national meeting.

Consideration was given to the question of the wisdom of including physical training in the program of the Young Mens Christian Associations shortly after the formation of the first YMCA at Boston in 1851. Leaders were not in agreement on the question but individual associations began to make some provision for physical development. The first gymnasium opened at New York and San Francisco in 1869. Fifteen years later 101 of 131 associations provided similar facilities. During this period the program changed from physical training to sports. The athletic movement grew so rapidly that demands for qualified directors made necessary the creation of a physical training department at the Springfield training school in 1887. Both the YMCA's and the Turners became so involved in athletics that the governing body of each association affiliated with the Amateur Athletic Union after its formation in 1888.

The Olympic Club of San Francisco was founded in 1860 as a social-athletic agency. Eight years later the New York Athletic Club became the first organization devoted entirely to the promotion of a variety of sports. During the 1870's similar clubs were formed in most of the major cities. Involvement of an ever-increasing number of clubs in sponsoring open meets made imperative the establishment of a governing board. From 1873 to the formation of the National Association of Amateur Athletes of America in 1879, there were three abortive attempts to establish such an organization.

The year 1879 was a high point in the establishment of athletic clubs and participation in athletic meetings. In 1877 there were approximately forty-three athletic clubs in the United States, excluding twelve college organizations. Two years later there were about one hundred clubs in New York and vicinity but in 1881 the number of organizations in the same area had been reduced to thirty. About one hundred open amateur meetings were conducted in 1879 but three years later there were only fifteen sponsored meets. The number of participants in championship competitions declined from an average of 750 to ninety between the years 1879 and 1882.

Two factors were responsible for the decline in the athletic clubs. Most of the organizations had based their financial structure on gate receipts derived from track and field meets and the supply of events was greater than the demand for such attractions. Also, there was competition from other spectator sports. In the late 1880's athletic clubs discovered that boxing and wrestling meets were a more effective way to finance activities than track meets. The emergence of new sports was in part responsible for the reduction in club membership. As a counter measure, athletic clubs added the emerging sports to the calendars of events at championship competitors.

William S. Vosburgh introduced the sport of cross country running in 1878, and the same year a meet was conducted by the Westchester Hare and Hounds Club. The event appealed to newspaper men and the resultant publicity was in part responsible for the rapid expansion of the sport. Within the next few years a number of clubs were formed and in 1883 the New York Athletic Club gave formal approval to the "paper chasers." Four years later devotees to the sport founded the National Cross-Country Association.

The year 1879 also marked a change in the spectator sports receiving the support of the middle class. Professional foot-racing and rowing, long the most popular events, reached a pinnacle of success prior to the decline of the 1880's. Baseball and boxing soon emerged to fill the need of urban dwellers, while trotting, the sport of rural America, gained acclaim far greater than it had enjoyed during previous decades.

Most Colonial Towns and villages had a champion runner but it was the antebellum period before the arrival of the professional track athlete. Foot racing, usually ten mile runs, was the accepted trial until Edward P. Weston and British walkers turned the attention of spectators and participants to heel and toe competition. Extremely popular, the sport was profitable to promoters and athletes but without an established regulatory agency judges found it impossible to administer contest and numerous disputes arose over rival claims to the championship. The unsatisfactory conditions prompted Sir John Astley to institute six days' go-as-you-please competitions for a five hundred pound purse and a championship belt.

Trials for the Astley Belt, held in both London and New York, were a tremendous success. Seats in the halls were never sufficient to meet the demand of spectators and metropolitan newspapers could not satisfy the interest of readers. The events and reports of them made pedestrianism the leading spectator sport of 1879. It was also the "high-point" in the sport's history. The number of articles appearing in newspapers reflect the rise and decline of the sport.

	1875	*1879*	*1885*
Tribune (NY)		24	
Times (NY)	58	292	25
Globe (Boston)	10	1,415	46

Promoters also recognized the potential of female pedestrianism after Madame Anderson, an unsuccessful British entertainer, completed her walk of 3,000 quarter-miles in as many quarter-hours on January 13, 1879. Female walkers became "headliners" and few cities were without a show. Competition was for the "Bean Pot" at Boston, the Maryland Championship at Baltimore, and at San Francisco a diamond-studded belt. Before the "craze" reached its height during the summer of 1879, a dozen events were being staged simultaneously in the New York City area.

Rowing was probably the leading participant and spectator sport prior to the 1880's. Professional sculling matches and amateur regattas attracted thousands of Americans. Few towns located near a body of water were without an association and most of them sponsored annual regattas. The 1879 regatta of the National Association of Amateur Oarsmen (1872) attracted over 200 participants, representatives of forty-one clubs from eleven states.

Charles E. Courtney and Edward Hanlon, a Canadian, participated in the greatest sculling match of the era in 1878. Hanlon's victory by a few inches gave promise that the rematch planned for 1879 would be as exciting as the first one but on the eve of the race vandals sawed Courtney's boat in half.

Rowing and sculling continued to be popular participant and spectator sports to the turn of the century, but after 1879, there was a gradual decline in the number of newspaper reports devoted to the activities.

	1875	*1879*	*1885*
Tribune (NY)	39	44	54
Times (NY)	177	156	80
Globe (Boston)	69	370	208

The rise of baseball to the status of "National Sport" began in the 1880's. Although organized amateur baseball began in the 1840's and professional baseball in 1869, the place of the sport in American society was in doubt until promoters succeeded in establishing it as a spectator attraction. After the failure of the first league, businessmen took charge of the sport by organizing the National League of Professional Baseball Clubs in 1876. They established exclusive rights to a territory through franchises (1876), season schedules (1877) and the "Reserve Rule" (1879). For three long seasons failure threatened the venture but in 1879 the businessmen, club-owners finally enjoyed a profitable season. Within a few years the National League was strong enough to determine the future of baseball. During these formative years, the Chicago White Stockings, under the managership of Adrian C. Anson, contributed greatly to the sport. The club won its third consecutive pennant in 1882, and owners, in recognition of public response, constructed the first adequate ball park. Anson also devoted attention to correcting the impression that ball players were crude individuals from the lower segment of society. He forced them to conduct themselves on and off the field as cultured gentlemen. Improvement in facilities and image of the players helped in promotion of the sport.

When John L. Sullivan defeated Paddy Ryan for the championship in 1882, boxing was outlawed in every state and only the "sporting element" regarded it more than an amusement for gambling. Sullivan realized that his championship would be worthless unless he could gain acceptance for the sport. In 1883 he staged fifty-three boxing exhibitions while touring the country. To attract opponents he began by offering fifty dollars to the man who could survive a four-round bout. Later, he increased the amount to $1,000. Police tolerated the matches because gloves were used and spectators of all social elements were attracted to them. Sullivan so glamorized boxing that boys throughout the nation adopted the sport.

Trotting races became an important part of the sporting scene in the 1840's but the period of greatest growth came after the establishment of the Grand Circuit in 1873. The National Association for the Promotion of the American Turf (1870) helped place the sport on an organized basis. The sport appealed to rural Americans and was one of the feature events at almost every county and state fair.

Conclusion

Patrons of sport in America prior to the 1880's were found largely on either end of the socio-economic scale, therefore, the small size of the upper class and the inability of the lower class to finance activities limited the amount of members of these classes were the ones with the time to devote to amusements. The beginning of widespread participation in sport came with the expansion of the upper and middle classes.

The final quarter of the Nineteenth Century was a period of tremendous economic advancement. With it came the emergence of a middle class with a measure of free time and some disposable income and an increase in the membership of the leisure class. These groups made sport an important part of the American scene.

Economic factors other than wealth also had an impact upon sport. Spectator sport became popular due to the concentration of population in cities. The railroad provided relatively efficient and inexpensive transportation for participants and spectators. In reporting sports events urban newspapers became promoters of sport.

It was during this period of change that a large number of sports were introduced for the first time, and both the new sports and those engaged in earlier were formalized for the purpose of promotion through the creation of associations and clubs. A significant number of these developments took place in 1879 to justify identifying the year as "The Beginning of an Era in American Sport."

A Historical Study of the Aims, Contents, and Methods of Swedish, Danish, and German Gymnastics Systems

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AIMS

Swedish System

Ling's main purpose was to create a system of military gymnastics which would bring about a rejuvenation of the youth of Sweden who in turn would restore the greatness of the nation. His idea of corrective gymnastics seems to have been formulated when he was in Denmark. The following statement substantiates this:

> "At first he began to learn fencing from two French emigres, who had set up a fencing school in Copenhagen. Ling attributed the cure of a gouty infection in one of his arms to the fencing. On this account, he was induced to take up gymnastics in their proper sense."[1]

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[1] Edward Hartwell, "Peter Henry Ling, The Swedish Gymnasiarch," *American Physical Education Review,* (September-December 1896), Vol. 1, No. 1 & 2, p. 2.

Another statement by Bukh also indicates this. He says:

> "In Copenhagen Ling became a pupil of Nachtegall. The apparatus he used was the same as Nachtegall's and his exercises must certainly at first have been the same but he soon began to form his own system of gymnastics."[2]

Ling was not what one would call, even in that period, a physiologist, but he studied anatomy, physiology and physics.[3] With this background of knowledge to draw from, he created his system of corrective gymnastics. Hartwell says: "The most distinctive feature of the Swedish work is the fact that it never loses sight of the corrective element. This is its primary purpose."[4]

The following comment is to be found in the N. E. A. Yearbook of 1914:[5] "The corrective influence of Swedish gymnastics is the most desirable and most important element and cannot be obtained by the practice of games and sports."

The aims of Ling which were militaristic in nature have been superseded by those which are concerned primarily with body health. The aims of later physical education leaders who advocated the Swedish system were quite different than those of Peter Ling. Spalding shows this in a statement taken from her plea that the American schools should adopt Swedish gymnastics:

> "The Swedish system differs from others more in its aims and methods than in the actual exercises which it includes. The criterion by which exercises are admitted to this system is based on the extent to which they will assist in the maintainence of health. Every exercise is used to produce a definite improvement in the functions of the heart, lungs, and other organs. The muscles are only considered in so far as their work and development are related to the other functions of the body."[6]

Danish System

In Denmark the original purpose behind Nachtegall's efforts was likewise military in nature. Neils Bukh states that physical exercises were used as one of the means of "rousing the Danish people."[7] Nachtegall aimed to reach this goal not only by getting army men to accept his system but also by introducing it into the public schools. And so we see that to Denmark "belongs the credit of first making gymnastics a part of the obligatory training in the army and the public schools."[8]

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[2] K.A. Knudsen, *A Textbook of Gymnastics,* P. Blakiston & Sons Co., Inc., Philadelphia, 1937, p. 14.

[3] Hartwell, *op. cit., p. 10.*

[4] *Ibid.,* p. 17.

[5] "Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the 52nd Annual Meeting" *National Education Association,* Ann Arbor, Mich. 1914, p. 71.

[6] Muriel Spalding, "The Case for the Swedish System," *The New Teaching,* John Adams, London, Hodder & Stoughton, 1925, p. 373.

[7] Neils Bukh, *Primary Gymnastics,* London, Methuen & Co., 1925, p. 5.

[8] Hartwell, *op. cit.,* p. 13.

According to Knudsen, Nachtegall's program soon was replaced by another. He says: "The gymnastics used were mainly Guts Muth's gymnastics in the form Nachtegall had given them. It was clear that this form of gymnastics had not in the long run the character necessary to unite the youth of the nation, and a remedy was sought and found in Ling's gymnastics."[9]

The aims of Danish gymnastics as indicated by American followers of this system do not emphasize their use for military purposes. One author states that the primary aim of Danish fundamental or primary gymnastics is to give first and foremost a thorough working and toning up of the whole body.[10] Dorothy Sumption feels that the aims of Danish gymnastics are: (1) flexibility, (2) strength, (3) coordination and mobility.[11]

German System

Guts Muth, the great grandfather of German gymnastics, was a naturalist who tried to accomplish his aims, which were harmonious relationships between mind and body, by holding his classes out of doors. In one of his papers Guts Muth says: "I know well enough that a genuine theory in gymnastics should be based on physiological principles, and the practice of every single movement should be governed by a consideration of individual peculiarities of the body."[12] W. A. Stecher quotes a doctor who writes: "The sole aim of gymnastic art is the harmonious development of the body in such a manner that the smallest part, itself and for itself, as well as in conjunction with the whole, is able to actualize and execute the mind's will."[13]

Jahn studied the writings of Guts Muth and was doubtlessly influenced by them, but his "faith and work in physical education originated from patriotic motives."[14] Zwarg, in writing about Jahn's aims, makes the following statement: "His apparatus exercises administered with the right method allow first of all individual expression through which alone true individual and social virtues can be developed. Secondly, they require no drilling on the part of an autocratic teacher or coach."[15]

In discussing German gymnastics, the work of Adolph Spiess must not be omitted. His aims were to have gymnastics taught in the public schools.[16] He believed that physical exercise should be an important part of the child's total education; he says: "The intellect and physique constitute but one being."[17]

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[9] Knudsen, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

[10] Hartwell, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

[11] Dorothy Sumption, *Fundamental Danish Gymnastics for Women*, A.S. Barnes & Co., New York, 1927, p. 189.

[12] W.A. Stecher, *Gymnastics*, Lee & Shepard Publishers, Boston, 1895, p. 9.

[13] Stecher, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

[14] Emmett A. Rice, *A Brief History of Physical Education*, A.S. Barnes & Co., New York, 1926, p. 101.

[15] Leopold F. Zwarg, *A Study of the History, Uses and Values of Apparatus in Physical Education*, Temple University, Philadelphia, 1928, p. 47.

[16] Rice, *op. cit.*, p. 107.

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 108.

Similarities in Aims

There seems to be a general agreement that the primary aims of Jahn, Ling, and Nachtegall were of a militant nature. Johnson points out the following:

> "Per Hendrick Ling in Sweden and Frederick Ludwig Jahn in Germany believed that with the developing of strong bodies under rigorous, systematic discipline, there would be fresh courage, real patriotism, and the ability to withstand hardships, and that they would thus eventually be able to avenge themselves for those earlier defeats. It is easily seen, therefore, that early physical education was developed and fostered primarily by international hatred."[18]

Rice also makes this clear as he discusses each system of gymnastics.

Differences in Aims

As far as the writer can determine, there were no real differences in the aims except that if we consider Guts Muth and Spiess as a part of this topic, and we must, then the aims of these two are in direct contrast with those of Jahn, Ling, and Nachtegall. The aim of the former two is the development of the individual educationally with physical exercise as an important aid, while the aim of the latter three is physical development for the benefit of the armies.

CONTENT

Swedish System

Per Ling, as previously stated, was the founder of the Swedish system of gymnastics. Hartwell, in an article in the *American Physical Education Review* comments: "Though the Swedish system of gymnastics has been considerably modified by Ling's successors, and particularly by his son, Hjalmar Ling, its development has followed so closely the lines marked out by Ling that his name is rightly given to that system."[19] The emphasis was on the corrective phase of the exercises. Apparatus was not necessary except for the stall bars and booms, but equipment used in Swedish gymnasiums includes: horizontal bar, bar-stalls, poles, vertical ropes, inclined rope, wooden ladders, vaulting horse, and vaulting box.[20] The work is done by a system of the "day's order."[21] Posse points out that the Swedish system of gymnastics "contains free standing exercises, and exercises on apparatus, yet it differs from other systems in as much as it is entirely independent of the apparatus, its movements usually being applicable to whatever may be at hand."[22] The outline of a day's lesson as taken from Posse's book is as follows:

(1. Introductory exercises
(2. Arch-flexions
General – (3. Heaving movements
(4. Balance movements
(5. Shoulderblade movements

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[18] Granville B. Johnson, *op. cit.*, p. 50.

[19] Hartwell, *op. cit.*, p. 6. (1896)

[20] Baron Nils Posse, *Special Kinesiology of Educational Gymnastics,* Lothrope, Lee & Shepard Co., Boston, 1890, p. 16-23.

[21] Knudsen, *op. cit.*, p. 710.

[22] Posse, *op. cit.*, p. 12.

Special – (6. Abdominal exercises
(7. Lateral trunk movements
(8. Slow leg movements
General – (9. Leaping
(10. Respiratory exercises[23]

In spite of what the advocates say of the system, however, it was generally thought to be too formal in nature. Hough put it very bluntly when he stated: "There are few fields which offer such opportunity for the successful exercise of all of the qualities of a bore, as does that of Swedish gymnastics."[24]

Danish System

Nachtegall had many ideas for organizing gymnastic classes and getting them started but "he was not the inventor of a system of his own, but borrowed his types of exercise from Dessan and Schnespfenthal, and used the manuals of Guts Muth as a guide."[25] This, then, meant the gymnastics classes included marching, fencing, running, jumping, and climbing. The apparatus used included ladders, horses, and ropes.

About 1884[26] the Swedish system of Ling's began to spread through the country. Knudsen states that "when first Ling's gymnastics got a foothold in Denmark, they spread with surprising rapidity . . . A governmental commission worked out the "Handbook of Gymnastics" which in 1899 was authorised for school use. This handbook contains the principles and exercises of Ling's system of gymnastics."[27]

As to the direct content, Bukh states: "The work, for the sake of convenience, can be divided into the following groups: class arrangement, exercises for legs, exercises for arms, exercises for neck, lateral exercises, abdominal exercises, dorsal exercises, marching and running, and vaulting and agility exercises."[28]

German System

Guts Muth thought out new movements himself – e.g., heaving exercises on the sloping beam, climbing poles, rope ladders, climbing ropes, various balance exercises, etc. His apparatus was the model on which was formed the apparatus to be seen until a few years ago in the Danish public schools.

Jahn began in a small way with few boys in his groups. Hiking, climbing, jumping, throwing, and swimming exercises using simple or no apparatus marked this beginning. It soon grew into a complex organization. Jahn invented the parallel bars and the horizontal bars. At the time of his death, turnvereins were working on all of the heavy apparatus and were jumping, running, throwing, and using calisthenics.

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[23] *Ibid.*, p. 7.

[24] Theodore Hough, "A Review of Swedish Gymnastics," *Boston Normal School of Gymnastics,* Boston, 1899, p. 41.

[25] F.E. Leonard, *A Guide to the History of Physical Education,* Lea & Febiger, Philadelphia, 1927, p. 185.

[26] *Ibid.*, p. 189.

[27] Knudsen, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

[28] Bukh, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

Spiess built up a program which was different than that used by Jahn and his turners. Stecher says: "In accordance with this system the materials for gymnastic exercises are divided as follows: free exercises; tactics; exercises with apparatus; exercises on apparatus; companion exercises."[29] Spiess then is credited with the introduction of formal gymnastics into the school system. Stecher relates that "it was from 1842 that there was a beginning made to introduce gymnastics into the German public schools. The gymnastics chosen for this purpose were, curiously enough, Jahn's word "turn" for adults, and not, as might have been expected, Guts Muth's gymnastics for children."[30]

Similarities in Contents

Swedish and Danish

1) Use of "days order"
2) Use of similar terminology
3) Use of Swedish apparatus
4) Progression of exercises

Swedish and German

1) Use of free exercises taken in standing position without apparatus
2) Exercise with light apparatus
3) Use of "days order"
4) Definiteness in exercises

Danish and German

1) Use of "days order"
2) Use of free exercises
3) Calisthenics with no held positions
4) Use of heavy German apparatus
5) Use of stunts

Differences in Contents

Swedish and Danish

1) Danish uses stunts and German apparatus
2) Use by Swedes of held positions in calisthenics
3) Classification of Danish exercises as non-definite
4) Different command of executions

Swedish and German

1) Use by Germans of heavy apparatus and stunts to increase interest
2) Claim by Swedes of corrective medical value
3) Exclusion by Swedes of games in their "day's order"
4) Belief of Germans that the exercise should be pleasing to the pupil
5) Emphasis on athletics and not calisthenics

Danish and German

1) Indefinite Danish movements in free exercises
2) Inclusion of games by Germans in their program

German and Danish

No great differences in content

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[29] Stecher, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

[30] *Ibid.*, p. 11.

METHODS

Swedish System

Spalding, whose book indicates her preference for the Swedish system states as follows:[31]

> "Of the principles of the Swedish system, those which most clearly distinguish the Swedish system from others are the following:
>
> 1. The subordination of the development of muscle to improvement in the functioning of the body as a whole.
> 2. The adoption of special Laws of Progression
> 3. The use of commands instead of music
> 4. The adherence to the "Order of Movements" which form the basis of every lesson"

It is often stated that the distinguishing feature of the system is the "held position." Hartwell points out:

> "Ling laid great stress on positions as distinguished from movements, and also emphasized the necessity of making all movements with care and precision at the word of command. He anticipated the common class exercises of Spiess, and was the first to devise free movements as preparatory exercises on gymnastic machines."[32]

He also gives an idea of the method of teaching when he comments that "Ling divided movements into trunk, head, arm, and leg movements. He made use of tables of movement which are prototypes of the present arrangement known as the gymnastic 'day's order.'"[33] Ling moreover laid down the rule that movements should be made in such a way as to promote and not hinder full, free and deep breathing.

Posse, who more than any other one person increased the interest of America in Swedish gymnastics, has presented us with the following outline:

Method of Leading the Lesson[34]

Imitation –	(teacher (pupil	Music –	(divided attention (mechanical rhythm
Memorizing –	(what now (what next	or	
Commands –	(concentration (discipline	No Music –	(concentration (natural rhythm

With the emphasis on the corrective phase being foremost in importance, Knudsen writes that "the particular attention given in 'Swedish' gymnastics to a slow progression gives the best guarantee that the heart will not be overstrained."[35] The commands receive special attention and are considered one of the most important elements in the teaching of Swedish gymnastics. As Posse points out: "Commands consist of two parts: one part, the preparatory, describing the exercise; the other, the executory, giving the time when it is to be done, and it also indicates the speed of motion."[36]

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[31] Spalding, *op. cit.*, p. 374.

[32] Hartwell, *op. cit.*, '10.

[33] *Ibid.*

[34] Posse, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

[35] Knudsen, *op. cit.*, p. 712.

Danish System

Because of both Swedish and Danish influence, the methods of teaching Danish gymnastics varies. Nils Bukh states: "The plan of work for a fundamental gymnastic table may be made in accordance with the principles of Ling's educational gymnastic tables – that is, work for all parts of the body and a gradual rise and fall in the output of energy."[37] Dorothy Sumption studied under Bukh for a short time; she states:

> "The class is conducted in a less formal manner, with no tense holding of attention in the fundamental standing position, and yet results in interest and uniform work. It is well to have the best pupils in the front of the class so that the demonstrations will be given accurately . . . Time out between exercises needs to be taken only when a new exercise is being explained or demonstrated, never for the sake of rest . . . Upon the personality of the teacher depends the successful teaching of Fundamental Gymnastics.[38]
>
> "The rhythm used in Fundamental Danish Gymnastics is fascinating because of its variety and irregularity. The use of ¾ time, five count movements and combinations of different counts, such as eight and seven, all lend interest to the day's work."[39]

Then again other authors list different methods of conducting classes.

German System

The methods of Jahn and Spiess are altogether different. Jahn's classes were conducted on an informal basis and squad leaders were used to handle the groups. Stecher points this out when he states:

> "Exercises are conducted in divisions; the class is divided into small divisions of ten to fifteen pupils, each division being under the supervision of an advanced pupil (a leader), who shows certain exercises, supervises them, and assists when necessary. When the pupils have practiced one kind of exercise for a certain time, a general change of divisions to a different apparatus leads to another kind of exercises; then comes a game, when the teacher looks after good order."[40]

Spiess introduced marching into the program so as to facilitate the handling of large classes. He believed that the class should be under the management of one teacher. Stecher gives the following description:

> "The pupils are divided after the manner of our public schools, and receive gymnastic instruction in such a way as to keep them under the constant supervision of the teacher, who himself gives out the exercises, and, when necessary, shows how to do them and superintends the execution thereof. All of the

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[36] Posse, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

[37] Bukh, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

[38] Sumption, *op. cit.*, pp. 6-9.

[39] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

[40] Stecher, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

> exercises, with the exception of those on the apparatus are, as a rule, performed simultaneously by all the pupils of the class, either at the command of the teacher or at counting."[41]

In writing about Jahn, Zwarg says:

> "The ideas of Guts Muth were fully incorporated into Jahn's system. Their method calls for the natural development of individual powers. The methods of Spiess and Ling are more easily adopted by teachers, but they are rather formal and ignore to some extreme extent the nature of the end. They seem therefore less valuable.
>
> "The methods of Spiess and Ling have for a long time influenced school gymnastics in all countries. The method of Jahn has been and still is first in favor among the people."[42]

Similarities in Methods

Swedish and Danish
1) Use of progression
2) Use of day's order
3) Use of commands
4) Formality of teaching

Swedish and German
1) Little similarity between Jahn's methods and Ling's methods.
2) Spiess and Ling
    a. exercises according to age groups
    b. formality
    c. single teacher for class

Danish and German
1) Little similarity of method of Jahn and Nachtegall
2) Spiess and Nachtegall
    a. classification
    b. single teacher
    c. use of music

Differences in Methods

Swedish and Danish
1) No use of music by Swedish; use by Danes

Swedish and German
1) Jahn and Ling
    a. informality of Jahn's classes
    b. use of squad leaders by Jahn
    c. Ling's emphasis on corrective exercises
2) Spiess and Ling
    a. Ling emphasized medical gymnastics

Danish and German
1) Jahn used turners or squad leaders; Nachtegall used the single teacher method
2) Formality of the Danish method

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[41] Stecher, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

[42] Zwarg, *op. cit.*, p. 47.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF EACH SYSTEM TO AMERICAN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Swedish System

Rice says this about the Swedish system of gymnastics,

> "The authors of the Swedish system have done much to enrich the field of physical education both in theory and practice. Their insistence on a complete study of the human organism, including anatomy, physiology, and kinesiology, as a training for the position of teacher of physical education, and on an arrangement of exercises based on that knowledge, places their work in the field of science . . . among the contributions in that field are the stall bars, inclined rope, and the Swedish boom."[43]

This upsurge in anatomical and physiological studies was not a little influenced by the controversies which arose concerning the validity of the Ling gymnastics as being truly corrective and medically beneficial. The advocates of the Danish and Swedish systems both in Europe and America were forced to do a great deal of studying and research so as to be able to substantiate their arguments.

Danish System

The proponents of Nachtegall's system, as did Nachtegall himself, were able to introduce and keep gymnastics in the public schools in Denmark. They also conducted the teacher training schools which have their counterpart in the United States. One would conclude that these ideas influenced our early leaders in physical education but Sharman doesn't think so. He says,

> "Physical education in Denmark has attracted considerable attention in this country, but apparently it has not had much influence on our program."[44]

German System

The influence of German gymnastics in American programs and to modern physical education was very great. Schwendener is generous in her praise of Jahn and the work of the turnverein. She wrote,

> "The significance of the contribution to physical education made by Jahn was tremendous. His use of method constituted a pattern to be followed for many years, while much of the apparatus and program developed by him became a standard of acceptability in Germany as well as in the United States. Jahn's early work as a naturalist in physical education inaugurated a movement which lay dormant for more than a hundred years. Then the hands of Hetherington, Wood, and Williams carried high the flaming torch, once held by Jahn, which lighted the way to activity which was fundamentally functional, physiologically valuable, psychologically sound, and recreative in essence."[45]

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[43] Rice, *op. cit.*, p. 121.

[44] Jackson R. Sharman, *Modern Principles of Physical Education,* A.S. Barnes & Co., New York, 1937, p. 21.

[45] Norma Schwendener, *The History of Physical Education in the United States,* A.S. Barnes & Co., New York, 1942, p. 43.

In talking about the contributions of the turnvereins she states,

> "... the turnverein with its many offerings held an important place in American life, and the gymnastics of the Turners formed the accepted standard for school and college use."[46]

Spiess' contributions were according to Rice[47] gymnasiums, regular periods for exercise, grading of proficiency, classification for age and sex, and training schools for teachers.

Description of the New Sports Library Collection at San Jose State College

William F. Gustafson
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Introduction

Attempting to describe the "new" sports library collection at San Jose State College provides much of the same kind of difficulty as faced by the college student who was given the granddaddy of all essay questions, "Describe the universe – and give two examples." It is virtually impossible to describe the collection in any kind of comprehensive manner within the confines of space and time that exist. On the other hand, it is possible to present some representative examples of the collection's content.

The library is new only in the sense that it is new to San Jose State College. The collection, world's largest privately-owned,[1] is the result of decades of painstaking work on the part of Fred Imhof, San Jose, California. Illness forced Imhof to sell the collection together with the rights to his syndicated column, "The Sports Expert." The purchaser is a California corporation, Sports Expert, Inc., headed by San Jose Mercury sportswriter, Wes Mathis.

This reporter had encouraged the College to consider purchase of the collection, but budget limitations precluded this possibility. The next best alternative, housing of the collection in the College's library, was accomplished after the Corporation and the College agreed upon a contract that specified the terms of the housing. The contract, in brief, obligates the College to provide adequate space for the collection and, in turn, obligates the Corporation to provide access to the collection to authorized scholars. Readers of this report are urged to take full advantage of this agreement.[2]

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[46] *Ibid.*, p. 51.

[47] Rice, *op. cit.*, p. 107-8.

[1] Norris and Ross McWhirter, *Guinness Book of World Records* (New York: Bantam Books, Inc.), p. 168.

[2] Arrangements for access can be made by writing to W.F. Gustafson, San Jose State College, San Jose, California 95114.

Indexed Card File

Probably the most unique aspect of the collection is the indexed card file that contains 250-300,000 3" x 5" cards that provide reference to sources of information available in the collection. These cards are alphabetized according to subject or personality heading and, with an estimated average of four entries per card, ready access is provided for upward of 1,000,000 references to information. The card file is, of course, being expanded at a steady rate.

Brief Description of the Collection

Five principal resources comprise the collection: (1) books, (2) journals and periodicals, (3) annuals such as almanacs and guides, (4) game programs (an estimated 33,000 for football alone), and (5) clippings from magazines and newspapers. The library is organized according to subject headings ranging from "almanacs" to "yachting." Thus, all references to a particular sport, e.g., badminton, are shelved together.

The listings that follow are an attempt to describe only a small portion of the collection. Listings are largely restricted to complete (abbrev. comp.) or nearly complete (abbrev. n.c. or ¾ comp.) series of magazines, guides, almanacs, and newspapers together with inclusive dates and to relatively old books. [3]

Almanacs

1) *American,* 1833-1904 (18 years available)
2) *World,* 1886-date
3) *International,* 1907-59 (¾ comp.)
4) *Australia,* 1927-date (n.c.)

Angling

1) *Field and Stream,* April, 1911-date (n.c. from 1917)
2) Foster: *Scientific Angler,* 1883
3) Wells: *Fly Rods and Fly Tackle,* 1885

Archery

1) Thompson: *How to Train for Archery,* 1879

Badminton

1) Official guides, 1931-date (n.c.).

Baseball

1) *The Sporting News,* Oct. 29, 1904-date (n.c.)
2) *Baseball Digest,* Aug., 1942-date
3) *Baseball Magazine,* Sept., 1911-Sept., 1957 (n.c.)
4) Official guides, 1877-date (one from 1872)
5) *Who's Who in Baseball,* 1916-date
6) Anson: *A Ball Player's Career,* 1900
7) Axelson: *Commy,* 1919
8) Evers: *Touching Second,* 1910
9) McGraw: *How to Play the Game,* 1910
10) Ward: *How to Become a Player,* 1888
11) Chadwick: *Baseball Manual,* 1889

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[3] Inquiries for specific information about the contents of the collection may be directed to the writer. A price list of duplicate books and other printed materials is available from Sports Expert, Inc., P.O. Box 5743, San Jose, California 95150.

Basketball

1) Official guides, 1902-date
2) Spalding's *How to Play Basketball*, 1904
3) Allen: *My Basketball Bible*, 1928
4) Carlson: *You and Basketball*, 1928
5) Martin: *The Shifting Ball Defense*, 1929
6) Variety of game programs, 1938-date

Bowling

1) Spalding's *Bowling*, 1896.

Boxing

1) *Ring Magazine*, 1926-date
2) Andrews, 1905-38 (n.c.)
3) Clark: *How to Box*, 1912
4) Fitzsimmons: *Physical Culture and Self Defense*, 1901
5) Nelson: *Battling Nelson*, 1909

Fencing

1) Spalding's *Fencing*, 1894
2) Spalding's *The Art of Fencing*, 1904

Football

1) Official guides, 1894-date
2) Camp: *American Football*, 1891
3) Taffy's *Satire on Old Time Football*, 1895
4) Camp-Deland: *Football*, 1896
5) Warner: *Football for Players and Coaches*, 1912
6) Variety of game programs, 1895-date

Golf

1) Official guides, 1903-date (n.c.)
2) Whigham: *How to Play Golf*, 1897
3) Smith: *Golf*, 1898
4) Haultain: *The Mystery of Golf*, 1910
5) Ouimet: *Success at Golf*, 1914

Gymnastics

1) Watson: *Calisthenics and Gymnastics*, 1868
2) Anderson: *Best Methods of Teaching Gymnastics*, 1896
3) Spalding's *Ground Tumbling*, 1899
4) Spalding's *Grading of Gymnastic Exercises*, 1899

Handball

1) Spalding's *Handball Guide*, 1900
2) Spalding's *How to Play Handball*, 1919

Ice Hockey

1) N.C.A.A. *Guide*, 1928-date
2) Spalding's *Hockey Guide*, 1905

Lacrosse

1) Official guides, 1924-date (n.c.)
2) Paret: *Tennis and Lacrosse*, 1912

Olympic Games

1) Variety of programs, books, etc. from 1904

Rowing

1) N.A.A.O. *Annual* 1934-date
2) Glendon-Glendon: *Rowing*, 1923

Rugby

1) Playfair *Annual*, 1948-date
2) Vassall: *Rugby Football*, 1890
3) Sewell: *Rugby Football Today*, 1931

Skiing

1) British *Annual*, 1920-date (n.c.)
2) American *Annual*, 1935-57
3) *Ski*, Nov., 1948-date
4) Caulfield: *How to Ski*, 1912
5) Jessup: *Skis and Skiing*, 1929

Soccer

1) Official guides, 1908-date (Comp. from 1928)
2) Spalding's *How to Play Soccer*, 1900

Swimming

1) Official guides, 1916-date (n.c.)
2) Webb: *Swimming Instructor*, 1891
3) Spalding's *How to Swim*, 1903
4) Corsan: *At Home in the Water*, 1910
5) Dalton: *Swimming Scientifically Taught*, 1912

Tennis

1) Official guides, 1892-date (all but 1895)
2) Dwight: *Lawn Tennis*, 1886
3) *Official Lawn Tennis Rules*, 1894
4) Doherty: *Lawn Tennis*, 1903
5) Beldam Vaile: *Great Lawn Tennis Players*, 1905
6) Chambers: *Lawn Tennis for Ladies*, 1910
7) Dewhurst: *The Science of Lawn Tennis*, 1910

Track and Field

1) IC4A *Guide*, 1920-49 (¾ comp.)
2) N.C.A.A. *Guide*, 1923-date
3) Spalding's *Guide*, 1895-1941 (all but two)
4) *Track and Field News*, Feb., 1948-date
5) Griffin: *Athletics*, 1891
6) Spalding's *College Athletics*, 1894
7) Shrubb: *Running and Cross Country Running*, 1905
8) Spalding's *How to Sprint*, 1905
9) Comstock: *How to Hurdle*, 1929
10) Variety of meet programs from 1888-date

Volleyball

1) Official guides, 1916-date (n.c.)
2) *Volleyball Review*, May, 1947-date

Water polo

1) Spalding's *Water Polo*, 1907

Weight training

1) *Strength and Health*, Dec., 1933-date

Wrestling

1) N.C.A.A. *Guide*, 1927-date (all but one)
2) Spalding's *Catch as Catch Can*, 1901
3) Spalding's *How to Wrestle*, 1905.

Yachting

1) *Yachting Magazine*, Jan., 1907-date (all but two)
2) *The Log*, 1930-date
3) Coffin: *The Americas Cup*, 1885
4) Lawson: *Lawson's History of the America Cup*, 1902
5) Bowman, *Yachting and Yachtsmen*, 1927.

General items

1) *Athletic Journal*, Mar., 1921-date (n.c.)
2) *Sport*, Sept., 1946-date
3) *Life*, Nov. 23, 1936-date
4) *Newsweek*, Dec. 8, 1934-date
5) *Sports Illustrated*, Aug. 16, 1954-date
6) *San Francisco Chronicle Sporting Green*, mid 1932-date
7) Hunt: *Sports and Amusements*, 1836
8) Bohn: *Handbook of Games*, 1850
9) Miller: *Philosophy in Sport*, 1855
10) Dick-Fitzgerald: *Athletic Sports for Boys*, 1865
11) Routledge: *Science in Sport*, 1877
12) Badminton Library: *The Poetry of Sport*, 1896.

Other sports in the collection

In addition to those sports to which brief references have been made, a large number of references to other sports and games is included in the collection. Other sports included are automobiling, aviation (including model aircraft), backgammon, bicycling, billiards, bobsleigh, Bocci-ball, bridge, bullfighting, camping, canasta, canoeing, checkers, chess, cock fighting, cricket, croquet, curling, dog racing, dog sled racing, dog shows, equestrian, field hockey, field trials, harness racing, horse racing, horseshoe pitching, hunting, ice skating, jai alai, jo-jotte, jiu-jitsu, judo, karate, karting, kendo, log rolling mah-jongg, marathon running, motorboating, motorcycling, mountain climbing, paddle tennis, pigeon flights, ping pong (table tennis), pinochle, poker, polo, quoits, racquets, rodeo, roller polo, roller skating, roque, rummy, Russian bank, shooting, skeet shooting, skin diving, soap box derbies, softball, solitaire, squash racquets, sumo, surfing, trapshooting, water skiing, and whist.

Final Comment

Many of the items contained in the collection are available in many other libraries and private collections. Probably nowhere else, on the other hand, is one likely to find either the breadth or depth of sports publications under a single roof as are available in this collection.

Researchers and Teachers at the OK Corral

Lawrence F. Locke
University of New Mexico

INTRODUCTION

The theme for this year's meetings of the NCPEAM Teacher Education Section is "Bridging the Gap Between Research and Practice." The thematic metaphor apparently had its origin in an aritcle by Taylor, Ghiselin, and Wolfer in 1962.[1] The swift current of events in education have given "bridging the gap" the status of a familiar aphorism. The metaphor's popularity is sustained by the fact that it succinctly expresses two ideas almost universally held by professional educators: (1) that there is a serious discontinuity between practice in education and research in education and (2) that it would work to everyone's advantage if it were possible to reduce or circumvent the rift between practice and research. Our selection of this year's theme indicates that, in varying degrees, the officers of the Teacher Education Section accept the gap as real and a bridge as desirable.

This first paper, taken in concert with the comments that will follow, is designed to outline the dimensions of the problem. Appropriate opening questions take such forms as: "Why is there a gap between research and practice; how wide is it; what forces sustain it; and what is its significance for the training of physical education teachers?" In the second major paper, Dr. Miller will attend to the matter of building bridges across the gap. More particularly, he will discuss strategies that can be devised to bring the powers of our research enterprise to bear upon the need to improve the conduct of physical education.

SOME ASSUMPTIONS

The remarks that follow depend upon several assumptions that are best made explicit at the outset. Complete acceptance of the validity of these assumptions is unnecessary. Some common ground, however arbitrary, must be provided if discussion of such a complex topic is to proceed with reasonable coherence.

FIRST: *Physical education is a profession.* The reason for its existence lies in its primary function — the provision of certain educational services to children in the public schools.

SECOND: *The means presently used by physical educators to conduct their programs are not entirely satisfactory.* More particularly, the means are not satisfactory because they cannot be depended upon consistently to propel children toward the ends commonly accepted as essential to program success.

THIRD: *There are logical reasons, at least, to expect research to play an important supportive role in the process of designing an effective physical education.* The use of relevant knowledge usually improves the probability that a particular choice will lead to a desired result.

Discussion of assumptions. The import of the first assumption (physical education is a profession) is that, as a profession, physical education differs in special and significant ways from the scholarly disciplines. The main difference lies in the fact that a scholarly discipline,

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[1] Calvin W. Taylor, Brewster Ghiselin, and John A. Wolfer, "Bridging the Gap," *NEA Journal* (January, 1962), pp. 23-25.

such as neurophysiology, is devoted to *understanding* some segment of reality, while a profession, such as physical education, is devoted to *altering* some segment of reality. Research is the primary tool by which members of a scholarly discipline accomplish their task. Research is a secondary tool by which the members of a profession improve the methods for accomplishing their task. The primary tool of a profession is not research, but its technology — the processes by which things are changed from what they are toward what we wish them to be.

Members of a profession use, and often transmit with great care, a body of knowledge and theory that functions to guide practice (this fact distinguishes the professions from the technical trades, such as machine repair, in which knowledge of practice alone is sufficient for membership). The content of this practice-related body of knowledge, unlike the substance of a discipline, is drawn from diverse external sources, is generated by dissimilar methods of research, is not ordinarily articulated by the use of higher order theories, and is always selected for its pragmatic value rather than for its capacity to explain fundamental phenomena.

When members of a profession engage in research, it normally takes one of several special forms: (1) the development of measuring instruments for the evaluation of practice; (2) the systematic development of new practices out of the raw material of basic research in the disciplines (research development); or (3) attempts to fill gaps in basic information where substantive questions of pressing professional concern do not attract adequate attention in the relevant disciplines.

The import of the second assumption (the means used to conduct programs are not satisfactory) is that given the input factors of time, space, equipment, and personnel, the output of children equipped with a range of skills in physical activity and lifetime sports is distressingly small and quite unreliable. At a more fundamental level, there is strong reason to believe that too many children leave school without the attitudinal disposition to elect a physically vigorous style of life. Professional physical educators may debate the exact nature of criteria for program success and the number of product failures that must be expected or tolerated; nevertheless, some level of disappointment with program results is so nearly universal as to be endemic in the profession.

The import of the third assumption(research should help produce improvements in practice) is that whether we are talking about knowledge drawn from the disciplines or the contributions of research within the profession, there is a natural presumption that research has the power to direct practical matters such as the conduct of public school physical education. The basis for the presumption is the obvious link between research and achievements already amply demonstrated in other fields such as medicine, engineering, and agriculture.

THE GAP BETWEEN RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Whether you believe that research has shaped and guided practice in physical education depends, in part, on who you are and on how you define research. On one hand, in physical education today there is a great willingness among teachers to believe that the process of research will provide solutions to many of the problems that bedevil them. On the other hand, the overwhelming majority of experts in the area of educational research express either disappointment at the low payoff in terms of improved practice, or do not find any payoff at all.[2]

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[2] Lawrence F. Locke, *The Role of Research in the Conduct of Physical Education* (New York: Teachers College Press, in press for Winter, 1968-1969).

There is some risk in presuming that the evaluation made by research experts is a better approximation of the truth than the evaluation made by teachers. Anyone who elects the teacher's optimistic view of educational history, however, will have to cite a number of clear-cut examples of successful change in physical education practice that are linked in unambiguous ways to empirical research. Such a task is likely to prove far more difficult than might at first appear to be the case.[3]

Presuming for the moment that there is not an extensive and uniformly beneficent relationship between research and practice in physical education, what is the terrain like on opposite sides of the separating gulf?

The domain called practice is characteristically regarded with some level of dissatisfaction by members of the profession. There is little doubt as to where most physical educators believe the main difficulty lies. If you ask prospective teachers or teachers on the job, "Where do you really want help in improving practice?" the reply invariably will deal with some aspect of program or instructional method. As Gage observed, "What a teacher really wants to know is, 'What should I do in the classroom?' "[4]

A corollary of the teacher's central concern with teaching is his attitude about professional research. Direct questioning of physical education teachers on the job will quickly make clear that they want (and expect) physical education research to deal mostly *with problems directly related to the teaching of physical education.* Without, at this time, passing any judgment regarding reasonableness of their expectation (or on the validity of the definition of research thereby implied), the teacher's view of physical education research must be accepted for what it is.

There *is* a subset of research on learning in which teacher behavior serves as the independent variable and pupil learning as the dependent variable. If this sub-area of research is called *research on teaching,* then we have identified what, by relative standards, is one of the most neglected and undernourished areas of physical education research. What is true of research on teaching is also true of research in which teacher behavior serves as the dependent variable and teacher education programs serve as the independent variable. Relative to other areas of investigation, research on teacher preparation in physical education is unknown.

For teachers, physical education *is* teaching. For teacher educators, physical education *is* teaching teachers how to teach physical education. For both parties, then, (surely constituting 99% of the profession) *the proper study of the physical education researcher is the process of physically educating.* Put another way, *teachers, teaching,* and *teacher training* are the areas that teachers regard as most appropriate for empirical investigation. The fact that this expectation, legitimate or not, is so rarely matched by what physical education researchers actually do, tends to dominate the view from the practice side of the gap.

What is the terrain like on the other bank – across the gap from the world of practice? The body of research-based knowledge that has accumulated in professional textbooks, journals, proceedings, reviews, and professorial notes can be examined in the light of the research-practice paradigm. As indicated above, there are two main inputs for our professional body of knowledge: external, in the form of adaptations made of knowledge from the disciplines or other professions, and internal, in the form of the research produced by physical educators. The remarks that follow pertain only to the internal inputs.

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[3] Lawrence F. Locke, "Dream, Myth, and Reality: The Role of Research in the Conduct of Physical Education. (Paper presented at the Physical Education Division Meeting, Eastern District Association Convention, AAHPER, Washington, D.C., April 28, 1968). (Multilith)

[4] N. L. Gage, "An Analytical Approach to Research on Instructional Methods." *Phi Delta Kappan* (June, 1968), p. 601.

If in-house research ought to provide knowledge that relates with reasonable directness to the central concerns of the profession, then physical education research too often is *unintelligible, unusable, undependable,* and *unavailable.*

Physical education research too often is *unintelligible* because it generally is communicated in a language familiar only to research specialists. The systematic language of the research specialist is not widely shared and is difficult to acquire. The ordinary teacher, unfamiliar with basic terms and subtle distinctions in the vocabulary of research reporting, is likely to find the usual research report nearly incomprehensible. Patterns of publication (production and dissemination of research journals and books), as well as choice of language, make abundantly clear that physical education researchers *intend to talk with each other* (and with a limited number of graduate students) and not to the profession at large.

One proposed method for reducing the unintelligibility of research reports is the consumer education course in research. Where consumer education has been tried in professional preparation programs, the process typically is limited to a one semester experience. Content rarely ventures further than descriptive statistics and rudimentary forms of experimental design. Even a confirmed consumer education enthusiast must admit that such training can hardly be expected to make the typical research report intelligible enough to make it truly accessible to the average physical education teacher. Surely, such course experiences cannot be thought to make the teacher into a discriminating consumer. Even graduate students, with far more accumulated hours in research courses, have difficulty in separating sense from nonsense within the covers of the *Research Quarterly.*[5]

A few well-intentioned attempts have been directed at making physical education research intelligible by translating it into less technical and specialized language (AAHPER's *What Research Tells the Coach* series, and the *Research Bulletin Column* in JOHPER). When done with care, such attempts often elicit a good deal of interest among teachers. Beyond interest, however, the translation strategy always encounters one immutable impediment if practice is the target. If research truly is to be useful, it must not just be translated for the teacher's consumption; it must be transmuted for the teacher's use.

Physical education research too often is *unusable* (from the teacher's standpoint) because it is not transmuted, or, more properly, because the process called research development is not used to shape raw facts into practical applications. It is a long step from an article in the *Research Quarterly* to a workable procedure in the gymnasium. If basic research can help us to understand something, it still remains for someone to invent a useful educational tool by which practice can be made to reflect that understanding. When that intervening someone is absent, the step from research to practice is too great a stride for many of us.

It is an inconvenient but undeniable fact that much research, by its very nature, cannot be expected to provide any substantial number of direct indications of what to do about practical matters. In the typical industrial case, an empirically derived fact must be engineered into an operational tool which is then laboratory tested, redesigned, field tested with particular populations, evaluated, perhaps revised again, packaged, marketed, and serviced for the consumer. Such an elaborate process is a far cry from the usual provisions for research development in physical education.

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[5] Lawrence F. Locke, "*Research Quarterly:* Caveat Emptor," *New York State Journal of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation* (Fall, 1967), pp. 30-36.

The teacher does not so much need research as he needs proven ways of using it. The average teacher does not possess time, inclination, or process skills needed to engage in research development. The engineering of improved practice involves a number of complex and specialized research roles. The development of research must be subject to the same canons of science as the generation of knowledge. Failure to extend the tools of research into the process of developing practice invites the kind of cyclic faddism that haunts our profession.

In theory, at least, the teacher educator is the most logical candidate for the role of middleman between research and practice. In fact, however, aside from such modes of research transmission as textbook authorship and lectures, teacher educators have shown no persisting inclination to attempt the role of active middleman. The modal behavior pattern of the teacher educator in physical education is transmission and reinforcement of practice as it is – not the systematic development of innovation.

The only remaining candidate is the researcher himself. Miles vividly describes the unpleasant fate that awaits such a volunteer:

> A researcher who decides to develop educational practices based on his findings, and to try them out in the schools, and to teach teachers to use them, and to evaluate the results, usually finds himself attacked on all fronts. He has violated norms controlling role behavior in each of the statuses he has occupied. Thus curriculum specialists criticize him because he has no 'coherent curriculum philosophy'; basic researchers criticize him for being 'applied'; and superintendents criticize him for 'not understanding the realities of the school business.'[6]

Physical education research too often is *undependable*. Understandably, the question of quality is a delicate one. To characterize physical education research as " . . . the accumulation of irrelevant statistics in order to proceed from unwarranted hypotheses to foregone conclusions"[7] would be a great injustice. To admit that many active researchers in the field regard the bulk of our research as less than adequate in terms of conceptualization and methodology, would be to state an obvious fact. That published research in the area of physical education suffers from a serious problem of quality has been noted and documented.[8] Other problems aside, research that is poorly designed, inadequately reported, and seriously misleading, constitutes a major impediment to the intelligent guidance of practice in physical education.

Some individuals feel that the quality problem stems from inadequate research training programs. Others point to professional environments that are not conducive to sound research. Yet others cite inherent methodological problems in all behavioral research –

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[6] Matthew B. Miles, "Emerging Research Utilization Roles in Education," in *Preparing Research Personnel for Education*, ed. by David L. Clark and Blaine R. Worthen (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa and American Educational Research Association, 1967), p. 8.

[7] Alvin C. Eurich, "New Dimensions in Educational Research," *AERA Newsletter* (April, 1962), p. 5.

[8] Locke, *op. cit.*, "*Research Quarterly:* Caveat Emptor."

particularly in the domain of learning. Whatever the cause, researchers know, and teachers now suspect, that presently it is impossible to depend upon a consistent level of scientific adequacy in the research that is performed and published within physical education.

Physical education research too often is *unavailable*. If research is to play a role in the conduct of physical education, some attention must be given to the problem of dissemination. To assume that ideas simply trickle down from the founts of basic knowledge is to underestimate the complexity of educational change. Under present conditions, reading research reports constitutes a negligible factor in the determination of teacher behavior. To blame the teacher is to avoid rather than to face the issues involved.

One of the practical issues is the reasonable availability of research material. For example, federal support for research and factors of social prestige within the research community have conspired in recent years to drive a larger portion of the best physical education research into obscure scientific journals and low circulation Federal Contract Reports. What our teachers cannot read, certainly cannot affect their practice.

A less obvious, but far more serious, form of unavailability is produced by the pattern of choices created when physical education researchers decide what to investigate. The question of *relevance* in professional research is so delicate as to make research workers uneasy at the mere mention of the word. Their discomfort is not without some cause. If each piece of research had to be justified in terms of applicability to an existing professional problem, any hope for real progress in either understanding or practice would soon disappear.

Freedom of inquiry is essential, not only to the researcher's zest for his work, but to the health of the research process itself. The only question pertains to the kind of freedom that is necessary and the arrangements for establishing and enforcing acceptable limits. If one can avoid the polar positions, there is room for much useful discussion about the best ways to select topics for research within a profession.

If it is accepted that research on teaching, as previously defined, is the area of investigation most relevant to the teacher, then a rough estimate of the availability of such research can be made by surveying our own research publications. For example, depending on the tightness of the definition used, between 10 and 20 percent of the articles published in the *Research Quarterly* over the past five years could be judged directly relevant to the teacher's question. "What shall I do in the classroom?" Perhaps half this number, however, represent test development research that bears only an inconsistent relationship to the work of public school teaching. Over the same period, there were no studies in which an aspect of teacher education program served as the independent variable and student achievement as the dependent variable.

In fairness, it must be admitted that the *Research Quarterly* is far from a perfect reflector of research activity in the field. Also, neither titles nor abstracts reveal with perfect reliability the degree to which a research report may serve as the stimulus to the development of an improved practice. Nevertheless, it must be conceded that, *from the teacher's viewpoint, a surprisingly small proportion of our total research output is likely to be regarded as relevant to teaching.*

The question raised by these observations is not whether we should devote a larger portion of our efforts to so called applied research as opposed to basic research. Among researchers nothing is easier than to start an argument about the virtues of basic research as opposed to applied research. Such futile debates lose sight of the obvious fact that professional needs demand both kinds of research. The important question is whether it is logical to devote such a small segment of our resources to research on teaching and teacher education.

Whether we are talking about exercise physiology, kinesiology, motor learning, or the sociology of sport, it is hard to see how basic research in these areas can throw light on the processes of physical education — except by the exercise of analogy and adaptation. While the latter strategies have yielded some insights and gains, they are hardly the most economical routes to progress. The most direct way to understand, and thus control, the process of physically educating children is to study physical education itself. It requires a huge feat of self-deception to behave as though the facts presently being produced by research in exercise physiology are useful in public school physical education.

Hilgard has offered a useful model of educational research that is helpful in understanding our situation.[9] He suggests that under healthy conditions, research in a profession distributes along a continuum that is based on three factors: (1) the similarity of what is being researched to what school children have to learn, (2) the degree to which the subjects used in research are like real school children, and (3) the degree to which the research environment resembles the real class setting. The scale thus provides a large number of permutations between the extremes.

A large portion of physical education research falls at one end of Hilgard's continuum. Such research involves tasks that do not resemble what children really have to learn, subjects that are not at all like real children, (on the rare occasions when teachers are involved, they almost never are real physical education teachers), and environments devoid of any resemblance to a public school gymnasium. This style of research often is a response to the fact that the actual process of physically educating school children presents complexities of unmanageable dimensions when dealt with as a whole. Given the Scylla of irrelevant results and the Charybdis of uninterpretable results, perhaps it is understandable that many researchers have elected to steer closer to the former.[10]

The fact that research at the other end of Hilgard's scale, involving real children, real schools, and the real tasks of becoming physically educated, is infinitely more difficult to design and execute, provides only a partial explanation for the skewed distribution of effort. History and the peculiar social dynamics of our research community contain the more important explanations. Certainly, no conspiracy has operated to suppress any particular topic of investigation, or format for research. It is a clear case of the bees going where the honey is. *Research on teaching and teacher education has never seemed half so sweet as research on topics more closely resembling the topics of investigation in the scholarly disciplines.*

THE BRIDGE BETWEEN RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Some educational scholars have maintained that it is either impossible to link empirical research and educational practice or that establishing the link will always cost more than is justified by the probabilities of payoff.[11] Gage recently has given his attention to this matter in an incisive article entitled "Can Science Contribute to the Art of Teaching?"[12] Gage marshalls all of the awful arguments for pessimism. The two central themes are: (1) that research never has functioned to shape practice (thus, it may be inherently impossible to cross the gap), and (2) that variations in teaching and educational practice do not make any significant or practical difference in student achievement because most of the controlling factors for learning lie outside the direct control of the teacher (it may not be worth tinkering with practice in any case).

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[9] Ernest R. Hilgard, "A Perspective on the Relationship Between Learning Theory and Educational Practice," *Theories of Learning and Instruction,* NSSE Yearbook, 1964 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 402-415.

[10] "In this regard, physical educators will be particularly interested to read Gage's account of recent work at the Stanford University Center for Research and Development in Teaching. At the Stanford Center, new research strategies are being devised in an attempt to break the act of teaching down into manageable (and thus researchable) units without distorting or destroying the elements found in the real world of teachers and students. (Gage, *op. cit.*, "An Analytical Approach To . . .)

The results of the recent study by Coleman, *et al.*, concerning equality of educational opportunity in the United States, is in perfect concert with Gage's observations.[13] Whatever its methodological inadequacies may have been, the Coleman report underscores for educators one well established fact. A substantial (though yet indefinite) portion of the variance in what students learn in school is accounted for by differences in community and family background – not by differences in school organization, teaching methodology, or teacher preparation.

Confronted with such a pessimistic outlook, do we turn away from the gap convinced that the game is not worth the candle? Many educational specialists and most educational researchers remain fully ready to commit themselves to the effort to link research and practice. The clear source of their optimism is the fact that research has never been conducted or used under optimal (or even favorable) conditions. Lack of technical sophistication, lack of agencies for research development, lack of a clear definition of what the teacher is supposed to do, have all hamstrung past attempts to apply research.

Even where there may be little faith in the applicability of research to the improvement of physical education, *professionals are forced to place their bets on bridging the gap – once they have appraised the alternatives.* To proceed without research is to proceed without any real understanding of the elements involved. While art and common sense are alternate routes to innovation, the latter, at least, has proven less than perfect, as the examples below will illustrate.

SOME ALTERNATIVES TO BRIDGING THE GAP

Many physical educators are convinced that if: (1) classes were smaller, (2) teachers more abundant, (3) space and equipment truly adequate, and (4) sufficient class time available, we would witness a dramatic improvement in the success of our programs. Such a common sense approach to improved practice has great appeal. There is, however, strong evidence that in the real world such optimism is not justified. As an example, it is instructive to examine one massive attempt to achieve exactly those common sense improvements listed above – The More Effective Schools Program (MES), in New York City.

Beginning in 1964, unprecedented resources were expended under MES to produce revolutionary changes in 11 schools. The schools did change dramatically and near ideal conditions were achieved in each of the target factors. When evaluation reports began to emerge, there was no evidence of consistent differences in the functioning of children in the

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[11] Robert Ebel, "Some Limitations of Basic Research in Education," *Phi Delta Kappan* (October, 1967), pp. 81-84.

[12] N.L. Gage, "Can Science Contribute to the Art of Teaching?" *Phi Delta Kappan* (March, 1968), pp. 399-403.

[13] Coleman, *et al. op. cit., Equality of Educational Opportunity.*

MES schools when they were contrasted to matched controls in other schools. The cause was clear enough. Despite all of the improvements, MES teachers basically were not doing anything very different from what teachers in other schools were doing, nor were they doing it particularly well. Fox sums up the grim facts:

> In short, in the absence of any program of teacher preparation and training for functioning in the MES program, and in the absence of any unit charged with the responsibility to develop materials, identify methods, and suggest their applicability and use, or to study the relevance of the curriculm and suggest adaptation or innovation, why should the lack of basic change in teacher or child functioning have surprised us?[14]

Extrapolating from the MES experience, it seems reasonable to conclude that in the absence of a much more sophisticated understanding of teaching, grounded on a full professional reservoir of teaching research, no amount of common sense tinkering with material and administrative arrangements can be expected to work substantial improvement in the conduct of physical education.

Many physical educators already have accepted the notion that there is pressing need for improved methods of teacher training. Such a presumption has the same logical appeal as does reducing class size, when one initially confronts the failures of our public school program. Unfortunately, members of the profession also are inclined to accept "more" as the reasonable equivalent of "better" in questions of teacher training.

Once again there is reason to believe that the common sense approach to change is untenable. Surprisingly little is known about the relationship between teacher preparation and pupil achievement in physical education. What does exist is wide-spread faith in a link between more teacher education and better physical education. The basis for faith seems to lie in the common sense presumption that a more extensive teacher training program should produce a more knowledgable teacher, who in turn, is better equipped to do his job. Metzner recently has assembled a short review of research that will dampen anyone's enthusiasm for more teacher education requirements. He traces a ". . . strong research trend showing a weak or nonexistent relationship between teacher academic attainment and pupil achievement at all levels of education."[15]

If the physical education received by America's children is to change and improve in significant ways, we must revise the way we select and prepare physical education teachers, not just prolong the period of their incarceration. The obvious difficulty is that there is no way to know *how* to change teacher education when we have so little real information about the training and nurture of physical educators. Art and common sense would provide some improvement over time. Can we afford the luxury of trial and error?

CONCLUSION

The redistribution and redirection of our research efforts into forms that will facilitate interaction between knowledge and practice is not the subject of this introductory paper. It seems proper in closing, however, to stress the urgency with which we must confront and meet the need for fundamental change in our uses of research.

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[14] David J. Fox, "Evaluating the 'More Effective Schools'," *Phi Delta Kappan* (June, 1968), p. 597.

[15] Seymour Metzner, "The Teacher Preparation Myth: A Phoenix Too Frequent," *Phi Delta Kappan* (October, 1968), p. 105.

It must be apparent that the author considers some of what passes for research in physical education to be an unfortunate misuse of the profession's valuable time, money, and talent. Teachers, school and college administrators, state legislatures (and taxpayers) have not yet been inclined to make the same judgment. The most powerful factor protecting our uses of research from critical appraisal has been the general reverence accorded the "big medicine" of science. There is some indication, however, that teachers are becoming more willing and better able to exercise some pragmatic and critical judgments about the relevance and productivity of our research enterprise.

A confrontation between the teaching and research branches of our professional body would have serious consequences. Internecine conflict is as senseless as it is avoidable. On the one hand, physical education teachers must have the fruits of investigations that can only be performed by our own researchers. On the other hand, research workers in physical education have no greater responsibility than to serve the basic function of the profession. The natural enemies of both teachers and researchers are ignorance, inadequate teaching, and shabby research. What is needed is not a civil war, but a belated civil ceremony that can give respectability and fertility to a relationship that up to now has too often been a case of mere cohabitation.

Grateful acknowledgement is given to Edwin Belzer, Frank Papscy, J. Sanders, and Armond Seidler for their assistance in the preparation of the final draft of this paper.

Reaction to "Researchers and Teachers at the OK Corral"

Jesse L. Parks
Springfield College

It is indeed a pleasure to have the opportunity to serve a reactor to the provocative paper delivered by Professor Locke this morning. Some of us had the enjoyable opportunity to hear him deliver a related paper at the Eastern District Association meeting last year and I'm sure that those of you who did would agree with me that he again has exposed the problem clearly and succinctly and has opened the way for Dr. Miller to bridge the gap tomorrow.

Professor Locke has stated three assumptions: (1) "Physical education is a profession." (2) "The means presently used by physical educators to conduct their programs are not entirely satisfactory," and (3) There are logical reasons, at least, to expect research to play an important supportive role in the process of designing an effective physical education." He likewise has stated that "Complete acceptance of the validity of these assumptions is unnecessary." I concur with the three assumptions as far as he has developed them. I was intrigued, however, by the fact that during his discussion of physical education as a profession and in the comparisons he made of the nature of research for a profession and for an academic discipline, he omitted consideration of physical education as an academic discipline – a proposition that has been deliberated at these meetings in previous years by

Franklin Henry, Warren Fraleigh, Gerald Kenyon and others. Perhaps, given consideration of that proposition, research could be viewed as a primary tool of physical education just as technology is a primary tool. Can one serve two gods at the same time? Consideration of physical education as an academic discipline with the concomitant desire to understand reality more adequately, cannot be brushed aside. Although this observation does not negate the discussion of Professor Locke, it may point up the fact that we are not all in agreement with Henry, Fraleigh, Kenyon and company.

I agree also that there exists a gap between research and practice in all areas of education. But I would be hard pressed to say that the gap that exists between physical education research and physical education teaching is any greater or lesser than is the case in other areas of education. Although the advisability of reducing this gap is an ever-present challenge, I hesitate to suggest that reducing this gap should be the primary province or responsibility of the researcher in physical education, the classroom teacher of physical education, or the teacher educator. My own conception is that these three specialists in physical education have ***different*** responsibilities: first, to forge ahead and discover new knowledge; second, to provide meaningful experiences for youth through existing knowledge; and the third, to prepare the most competent physical educators possible. The gap is there and always will be there - but the bridge is a definite need and a real possibility. The bridge will not eliminate but merely reduce the gap.

Without preempting Doctor Miller's comments of tomorrow, I'd like to suggest three points relevant to those of us in teacher education who are interested in assisting in building the bridge. It is evident that knowledge and/or "half knowledge" within our field is increasing rapidly. Therefore, we must catch up with the times and redesign our curricula. Instead of preparing the person who attempts to be all things to all men, we must provide curricula – both graduate and undergraduate – that prepare specialists. Specialists who will become pre-primary, elementary or secondary school teachers, specialists in athletic coaching, in adapted physical education, in exercise physiology and in curricular research. Then, as our teaching, researching, and teaching of teachers improve, undoubtably the "movement engineer" or the bridge-builder will come forth, if for no other reason than that the market will demand him.

It is also evident that we must put more"muscle" in the research courses included in our teacher education curricula for beginning graduate students. Dr. Locke mentioned this in discussing the consumer education course in research taught within so many of our institutions. It is most important that we not only improve this course but likewise reappraise our overall research requirements for those obtaining the first graduate degree. I am thoroughly convinced that all students receiving the master's degree should be required to conduct some type of research under competent leadership. With the need for bridging the gap as important as it is, why have we eliminated the research thesis or project from the requirements for the master's degree in some of our programs?

Dr. Locke's discussion of our research as being ***"unintelligible*** unusable, undependable, and unavailable" as it relates to the central concerns of the profession is quite accurate if we agree to the service nature of physical education. True, much of our research has not provided answers for the teacher in the gymnasium. It is wise to remember, however, that the teacher is asking the most difficult questions for research to answer in simple terms. The learning of skills and the development of a positive attitude by the child or by a class unit are complex matters. It is far easier to isolate the variables in the physiology laboratory than in the gymnasium. Also, too few of us are engaged in the kinds of longitudinal research that could provide more factual data concerning the questions of the teacher in the gymnasium.

This latter responsibility is one that I feel can be undertaken more appropriately by those of us in teacher education since we do have laboratory schools, or public schools available. This undertaking by the teacher educator will facilitate the transmission of research findings among his students, thus adding stones to the bridge.

In conclusion, I would like to thank Larry again for extending to me the opportunity to respond to his excellent paper. He has illustrated the existence of the gap, its perspective and its meaning. In addition, he included in his discussion of the second assumption the statement, "that too many children leave school without the attitudinal disposition to elect a physically vigorous style of life." Although not directly related to the gap between research and teaching in physical education, it is my judgment that too many physical education teachers, teachers of prospective teachers of physical education, and physical educator researchers, are not in agreement as to the goal for what we are doing. In our re-examination, it would seem that serious consideration of the need to develop within our students a positive attitude toward continued vigorous participation is the kind of mutual concern and goal that could bring researcher and teacher closer together.

Reaction to "Researchers and Teachers at the OK Corral"

Arne L. Olson
East Stroudsburg State College

It seems that Larry Locke and I are in such close thinking on the topic presented that I cannot offer much in the way of disagreement or criticism of his paper. Perhaps he has brain-washed me because I have read several of his papers in the past year. I would like to comment that Larry has a number of thoughts in this paper – some of which won't be recognized for their depth or importance until you have had a chance to study the document.

When Larry asked me to react to his paper, I decided to expand one small but important point rather than summarizing or commenting on the general content of the paper.

Larry stated that one of the problems in physical education research is that it is undependable. I would like to enlarge on this point by indicating that much of the physical education research that is conducted in areas related to teaching is based on simple measurement procedures, when the phenomena being measured are, in fact, very complex. This, of course, invalidates some of the research with regard to the purpose for which it was intended. Most behavioral outcomes of the instructional program, for example, are not measured by our typical physical education tests.

Most tests in physical education, or in education in general for that matter, were not designed for research purposes, but instead were designed for general screening or in some instances for identifying individual weaknesses. Our physical fitness tests, for example, fall into this category and do not, generally speaking, measure accurately the important changes which are likely to occur as a result of an experimental program. Take the area of reading and fitness, for example, which is of concern to many elementary school physical education researchers. A typical design might include administering the Metropolitan Reading Test and the AAHPER Youth Fitness Test to a group of youngsters who would then be assigned at random to experimental and control conditions. The experimental treatment of perceptual motor training, or other experimental procedures, could then be applied to the experimental subjects with the control subjects receiving some parallel but unrelated personal attention. Following the experimental period, a post test is typically given to the experimental and control subjects and interpretations made from the general results.

I submit that neither the Metropolitan Reading Test nor the Youth Fitness Test are measuring the kinds of phenomena that may be changing within the experimental subjects as a result of the experimental treatment – if there are changes. In addition, the experimental treatment, grossly applied to a group of children selected at random, would probably not have an effect on the total group's reading ability. Individuals with certain needs may benefit from certain treatments but this effect will probably be masked in general perceptual motor training experiments such as that described above.

An alternate proposal would consist of identifying specific problems in both the motor area and in the reading area which seem to parallel each other. Then a few subjects could be identified who possessed those specific characteristics. Specific prescribed programs could be developed for the experimental group of subjects. Following a year or two of identifying parallel characteristics, specific and precise status determining tests for boys and girls with the identifiable problems could be developed. An experimental evaluation could then be completed taking these specific considerations into account. This type of approach, in my opinion, will help answer questions that we are all wondering about, given today's set of conflicting results in the area of perceptual-motor training and reading. Perhaps this type of approach would prove beneficial in other problem areas.

Some Aspects of Research and Practice

Richard I. Miller
University of Kentucky

The problem of bridging theory and/or research and practice has been around almost as long as organized existence, or at least since Ancient Greece. Certainly the great thinkers of Ancient Greece were concerned about the problem of relating their ideas about how man *should be* governed to how he *is* governed.

Perhaps we could start with one basic postulate about the gap between what we know and what we do; namely, that the gap is inevitable and we should direct our efforts not toward eliminating it but toward narrowing it. Furthermore, we should preserve the gap in some cases. For example, too many poorly developed semi-researched ideas find their ways into school practices due to a variety of reasons, such as pronouncements by educational father figures, the urge to be innovative, or an affectionate subjective bias toward a particular innovation. Many scientists are particularly sensitive to the adaptation of their laboratory findings before the results are fully known or of the adaptation by incompetent translators.

Thus far I have mentioned that the bridge between research and practice is ages old, is present in almost all areas of living, is impossible to close completely, and in some cases is needed. These points are merely openers. Three contemporary factors give the general problem some different dimensions.

The rapid growth of knowledge is well known, but we may not always appreciate how the problem has mushroomed in recent times. As Gilbert Burch points out:

> One of the most undercomprehended facts of our age is its huge and growing demand for knowledge. Just as the production and distribution of food is the major occupation of primitive and "emerging" societies, the production and distribution of knowledge is the major occupation of technically advanced nations and may approach half the total U.S. output by 1984 . . . In 1963 the Nation's total outlay for knowledge came to nearly $195 billion, up 43 percent in 5 years.[1]

The growth of knowledge includes the growth of research. The extent of concern about the quality and nature of research in education is unprecedented. As just one example, attendance at the American Educational Research Association's annual meeting has increased 350 percent since 1964. And in medicine, dentistry, industry and space technology, to name just a few areas, the emphasis on research has been very impressive indeed.

The contemporary gap between what we know and what we do has a different dimension because of the rapidity with which our present knowledge changes. It has been estimated that the revisionary cycle for any science is about five years. In other words, major new knowledge will need to be incorporated within that period. Certainly the revisionary cycle is shorter for such fields as space medicine, brain and heart research, and military technology. The rapidity of knowledge obsolescence requires that we constantly work to cut down the time lag between sound research and its application. This need calls for developing a new type of research translator who serves somewhat as the detail man does for pharmaceutical firms or as the county extension agent does for agriculture.

A third dimension of the contemporary scene relates to the increasing emphasis upon scientific verification. This emphasis is relatively recent, since the end of the second World War, although earlier approaches by Thorndike, Dewey, and others laid the groundwork for education in general just as C.H. McCloy, Peter Karpovich, Thomas K. Cureton and others have done for physical education. In almost all aspects of education, and certainly in your field, we are becoming much more sensitive to the importance of research.

These three reasons, then – the rapid proliferation of knowledge, the rapid change in what we know, and the increasing awareness of the importance of research – lead us to ask two general questions about research. They are:

1) Is the present quantity, quality, and nature of research adequate?

2) Is research viewed as an aspect of the change process?

Is the present quantity, quality, and nature of research adequate?

The examination of widely held assumptions and points of view can be an interesting exercise. An examination might be made of the relationship between amounts of money and quality of research. For example, the expenditures of research on education is now estimated by the U.S. Office of Education's Bureau of Research to be a fraction over one percent of gross educational expenditures. This figure is only a slight improvement over the one-tenth of one percent estimated in 1962 and the nearly one percent estimated in 1966.

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[1] Gilbert Burch, "Knowledge: The Biggest Growth Industry of Them All, *Fortune Magazine,* 70:128-131; November, 1964.

One of the major recommendations of the NEA's Project on Instruction related to research, and it stated: "School systems should allocate an appropriate proportion of their annual operating budgets – not less than 1 percent – for the support of research, experimentation, and innovation."[2] Many reviewers considered this amount to be too high and too specific, but it seems tame and commonplace only five years later. The present figure of slightly over one percent is much lower than the five to ten percent found in most industries and in the military.

But simply more money for research is not the answer. Many of us have a healthy respect for money and would like more of it; nevertheless, we do not believe that more money necessarily will result in more improvement.

Often our calls for more research are too generalized and fail to differentiate between areas of greater and lesser research needs. Sufficient "hard" research is available in some areas to serve as a solid basis for modified or new practice. For example, from studying Professor Joseph Gruber's excellent paper on "Exercise and Mental Performance,"[3] I would gather that enough is known to serve as a basis for needed action in this area. On the other hand, I do not know of a single piece of research pertaining to the problems of lag time in introducing a new idea or program in physical education.

To sum up this section, one can say that a marked increase in research awareness and activities is evident, a trend which may be expected to continue for some time. One can say also that some research is academic, superficial, and poorly done. I have seen figures, as I am sure you have, about what percentage of research is useless, misleading, or poorly done. These figures may have some value; but their inventors, when hard pressed, have no research to support their figures on poor research and so forth. I prefer to believe that we now have the best and most extensive education research in our history, but I am troubled by the answer to the question: "Is it good enough for the future?" On this one, many of us believe the educational enterprise will have to do better.

Is research viewed as an aspect of the change process?

Turning to the second question – "Is research viewed as an aspect of the change process?" – we find that many, if not most, areas of education are not viewing research in the larger context of the change process. This larger context is essential, in my opinion, if the final objective is improved practice of physical education among children, youth, and adults. Choosing this objective is not just an exercise in semantics; it implies a flow of activity toward eventual utilization. This point of view does not negate the validity of pure research, but it says that most educational research is not performed for the mere production of knowledge. Some pure research is essential and must be jealously guarded; but the use of public monies for education – whether federal, state, or local – carries an obligation toward improvement of people.

The process of change includes several elements, which are separate yet related and which do not have to follow any particular sequence. As spelled out by Clark and Guba in 1965, these four elements are: research, development, diffusion, and adoption.[4] The change model

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[2] A Report of the NEA Project on Instruction, *Schools for The Sixties.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963, p. 22.

[3] Joseph J. Gruber, "Exercise and Mental Performance," An address to the 134th Meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, December 26, 1968.

[4] Egon G. Guba, "The Process of Educational Improvement," in *Educational Change*, ed. by Richard R. Goulet. New York: Citation Press, 1968, pp. 136-148.

I am suggesting has six aspects, which are research, development, dissemination, demonstration, implementation, and evaluation. This model is based upon the Clark-Guba effort, but with some marked differences.

Research can be defined in many ways. One of the inventive geniuses of this century, J.F. Kettering, said that "Research is a high-hat word that scares a lot of people. It needn't. It is nothing but a state of mind – a friendly, welcoming attitude toward change. It is the problem-solving mind as contrasted with the let-well-enough-alone mind. It is the composed mind instead of the fiddler mind. It is the tomorrow mind instead of the yesterday mind."

Check out Kettering's definition against some researcher that you know. If his primary interest is in finding solutions rather than finding fault, if he has rigorous standards of excellence yet a high tolerance for ambiguity, if he has an almost combative yet open approach to difficult problems, and if he is curious about life, and perhaps a little absent- (or present-) minded, then he is a researcher! (Of course, we assume that he will have the needed technical competence.)

Research in education and in physical education needs to disrobe itself of unspoken assumptions about a "pecking order" of importance. This point of view is an unfortunate one, and it has developed largely because feelings of intellectual inferiority have caused some workers in our vineyard to seek *research respectability* rather than *solutions to problems*. The two perspectives are fundamentally different.

Mathematical models and computerized statistics are "in" now, and most of us have a high regard for them.[5] But some of the things we need to know, indeed, probably most of them, do not lend themselves to statistical treatment. It is important to remember that visual observation is a primary research tool of the cultural anthropologist; that case studies are valuable tools for political scientists; and that the interview is a standard research tool for psychology, upon which Piaget and Inhelder based much of their work.

In essence, the research procedure should be chosen in view of the type of data; research is a means to an end – the advancement of pure or applied knowledge – and not an end in itself.

Development refers to two basic modes of operation. It refers to applying research to the solution of a specific educational problem, in this case one relating to physical education; and it refers to taking research, in learning theory for example, and making appropriate applications to a specific educational field, in this case again relating to physical education.

Who in education are the specialists in development? Dr. Locke has mentioned that our teacher education specialists serve as middlemen, and this is certainly one possibility. The developer needs a more task-oriented approach with human and technical skills of translation than is needed by the researcher. We have done very little, almost nothing, in education to develop these specialists, evidently under the assumption that somehow good research will be translated into practice. Education is one of the very few professions that allows itself the luxury of this myopia.

Dissemination is generally considered as a procedure for communicating something to someone. Too often, dissemination is just that and is rather ineffective because of it. We have assumed that a good program or an idea will disseminate itself. That might well be the case – if we would have 50 years and very little change in basic knowledge.

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[5] For two recent works using these procedures, see: William J. Diamond, Charles F. Martin, and Richard I. Miller, *Quality Rankings of Kentucky School Districts.* Lexington, Kentucky: Bureau of School Service, 1968, 225 pp.; and *A Methodology for Assessing the Quality of Public Education.* Bureau of School Service, 1969 (in press).

Dissemination needs to be considered in terms of a systems approach – one which considers the sender, the message, the medium, and the receiver. Each aspect needs to be considered individually as well as an aspect of the whole. Elaboration of this model can be found in two footnote references.[6]

Demonstration may or may not be an aspect of the change process, depending upon the nature of the research or development. In his study of change in New York State, Henry Brickell found that visiting a program in roughly similar circumstances was the most effective form of dissemination.[7]

Without going into detail, at least five problems may arise in establishing demonstration programs. These are: (1) visitors may concentrate their attention on the form rather than the substance of the demonstration; (2) the transferability of demonstrations needs to be given careful consideration; (3) timing of visits should mesh with visually meaningful programs; (4) procedures for handling visitors need to be worked out; and (5) too many visitors may interfere with learning.

Implementation is the forgotten factor in efforts to bridge the gap between theory or research and practice. If perfect communication existed between researchers and practitioners, the considerable difficulties related to developing strategies for change (improvement) would remain. Many who are studying the processes and strategies for bringing about improvements believe that efforts to bridge the research-practice gap are contributory but peripheral to the more fundamental issues related to the ways and means of bringing about effective change.[8]

Evaluation has traditionally been a matter of pre-test and post-test, or some other type of statistical procedure. Of course, these instruments remain valuable tools for the evaluator; but today he will use additional procedures. Evaluation, in the modern context, refers to feedback and guidance as well as judgmental functions, and it uses a variety of techniques to accomplish its objectives. These techniques may include intricate statistical procedures, informal surveys, case studies, structured interviews, standardized tests, and the like. The procedure chosen will depend upon the nature of the problem.

To cite a personal example: As director of the two national independent studies of ESEA Title III, known as PACE, and now as part-time executive secretary of The President's National Advisory Council on Supplementary Centers and Services, I have combed the nation for the most competent individuals in evaluation to assist the over 30 eminent educators in searching for the most effective ways of evaluating the overall PACE program. Of course, we could spin off various models, and did; but within the limits of our situation, we have finally had to fall back upon a number of so-called "soft" evaluative procedures. As expressed by one of the study team, Robert Havighurst, the programs for PACE supplementary centers "tend to be broad and rather vaguely defined. They usually propose to create new courses of instruction with new teaching materials, or to train teachers and counselors for new roles. Thus they do not lend themselves to an experimental design, with experimental and control groups of students and statistical tests of various hypotheses."[9]

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[6] Subcommittee on Education, United States Senate, *Notes and Working Papers Concerning the Administration of Programs Authorized Under Title III of Public Law 89-10.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967, pp. 48-50; and "An Orderly Approach to Dissemination," *PACE report,* March, 1968, pp. 8-9.

[7] Henry M. Brickell, *Organizing New York State for Educational Change.* Albany, New York: State Education Department, 1961, p. 67.

[8] For a bibliography of literature on the processes of change, see: *Selected and Annotated Bibliography on the Processes of Change* (1966 Edition), compiled by Norman D. Kurland and Richard I. Miller. Lexington, Kentucky: Program on Educational Change, University of Kentucky, 1967, 41 pp.

Some Suggested Directions

At this point I would like to offer five suggestions that might assist in narrowing the research-practice gap.

1) The ESEA package has included 20 Title IV regional educational laboratories, which have development, coordination, and dissemination functions. I do not know of any of the laboratories that is giving more than a passing look at physical education. It would seem that your field would be a natural activity for some laboratory activities.
2) A large national study of physical education is needed. Something along the line of the outstanding School Health Study that has been directed by Dr. Elena Sliepcevich. The health study, from the curricular design point-of-view, is probably the most sound of all the major national studies.
3) More ESEA Title III projects might focus on various aspects of physical education. An analysis of PACE projects reveals that very few projects have focused on physical education.
4) A series of small, invitational researcher-practitioner conferences should be held in which only good listeners are invited! In our busy and clocked living, we rarely sit down and listen — really listen — to a different set of problems.
5) Much greater attention needs to be given to the processes of educational change as they relate to your field. A few departments of physical education might take on this focus.

In our hierarchy of values, we have traditionally given developmental and change activities a lower place than "pure" research, just as we have relegated public school teaching to a lower status than college teaching, and elementary lower than secondary. This unarticulated hierarchy is wrong fundamentally, and until we take sincere and persistent steps toward recognizing the important contributions made by all segments of our profession, how can we expect to do much about bridging the gap between research and practice? I believe the gap is more human than technological and more a case of unwillingness to communicate than an inability to understand.

The attitudinal gap between research and practice is a concern in many fields. A conference on frontiers of learning was held at Lake Como, Italy, in October, 1967, pulling together internationally distinguished scholars in various aspects of brain research and professional educators. A major communications problem soon became evident among this group of twenty. We found that the scientists and educators have much to say to one another if only they can develop effective procedures for communication and joint action. The scientist often does not understand that *education* is an interactive science, similar to medicine. That is to say, education is a science involved with the development of a body of knowledge in regard to the applications of laws or principles which operate *in a particular set of environmental conditions*. In the case of medicine, these environmental conditions are determined by the peculiar nature of the total learning situation or environment.

The products of the sciences, biological or social, will be applied by society whether the scientists like it or not. Whether the translation will be well done or poorly done depends on the degree to which the scientist is willing to spend a part of his time communicating with those responsible for social action. Some of the conference participants (the scientists) expressed dismay concerning the manner in which newspapers misquote or distort their contributions. Such happenings, it is important to realize, are merely the inevitable consequences of their having isolated themselves from the action society.

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[9] Robert J. Havighurst, "Urban, Metropolitan and Rural Educational Development," in *Evaluation and 'PACE'* (Report No. 1 of the Second National Study of PACE). February 29, 1968, p. 73.

The scientists, on the other hand, are probably correct in their opinion that there is no direct translation from their world to the world of the educational practitioner. Any attempt to apply a general scientific principle to a specific classroom situation, without intelligent regard for the peculiar nature of the situation, is certain to encounter serious trouble or failure.

The educator needs a chance to raise his sights. For perspective, he needs both depth of knowledge and time. Often buried in a mass of urgent details, he is hard-pressed to draw a meaningful perspective. Through interaction with the less pressured life of the scientist, he begins to think again in terms of larger conceptual schemes and systems. He would not use them as the scientist does, but he will be better for knowing about them.

In addition, the scientist must realize that as his own work becomes more costly, he himself becomes more indebted to the rest of the society for financially supporting that work. Part of the price that he should pay is not only to communicate with the rest of society, but also to listen to the concerns of the citizenry as well.

It has been said that Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin were among the last truly educated men in the sense that they could cover much of the human knowledge available in their time. The total human knowledge has long since out-run the individual man's cortical capabilities. In order to compensate for the fragmentation which has developed from this situation, a periodic re-examination and interchange of knowledge between researchers and practitioners is urgently needed so that each can help the other move forward.

Response to "Some Aspects of Research and Practice"

J. Kenneth Cummiskey
American Association of Junior Colleges

Two points made by Dr. Miller strike me as deserving special emphasis.

1) Too many poorly developed, semi-researched ideas find their way into school practice.
2) A new type of research translator is needed who serves as the county extension agent does for agriculture.

Dr. Miller goes on to pose two questions which I will repeat and comment upon.

Is the present quantity, quality and nature of research adequate?

The problem is one of quality and nature of the research, not its quantity. We suffer from a multitude of discrete investigative efforts and need a continuous, growing body of data on a few basic questions.

I suggest our procedure should be to: 1. define the basic problems in physical education; 2. set priorities for a research effort; 3. build a cumulative and supportive research design; 4. see that all funded research is related to the basic research design so that research findings relate to the growing body of knowledge on the problem under investigation; 5. develop a data system that allows for simple access to stored information and efficient data retrieval by researchers and program developers and; 6. carry on a continuous process of transmitting information to practitioners concerning progress in major research efforts through the use of trained interpreters conversant with both the practice of physical education and research processes.

Reaching agreement on priorities is obviously a major problem for the profession. My feeling, however, is that if the profession cannot come to agreement on priority needs in our knowledge resources, major government and foundation funding sources should not support our efforts. Nor should individual universities.

Priority research that focuses upon answers to specific behavioral questions may encompass both pure and applied research. The key is plugging all research efforts – design, procedures and results – into a data system that will provide an observable picture of our growing knowledge on the subject in question.

We need to develop a "Critical Path" model of where we are and where we wish to go in each basic research question. We will be able to select our individual research efforts from the gaps at decision points on the critical path model.

Is research viewed as an aspect of the change process?

Dr. Miller feels that most people do not view research in this way, but that this view of research, as a contributor to the change process in human behavior is essential for progress. I concur completely.

The Aerospace Industry allocates close to 10% of their investment into research as compared with around 1% invested in research by the "education industry." Corporations allocate large sums to research and development because the research is *for* development which, in turn, means development of systems that will better perform a function – will result in better performance or changed behavior. Government benefactors and the corporations themselves plow in the money because they *must* have an improved system and they firmly believe the process or product they are investing in will provide the improved system and the research and development will result in a better product.

Do we in physical education care enough about improved performance and behavior change on the part of students and participants?

Do we believe the system (schools, physical education instruction, athletics) can contribute to the desired behavior change?

Can we convince ourselves or anyone else that we have now, or can develop, an investigatory system to improve our teaching operations and therefore bring about change in student performance?

In the insurance huxstering business they wear buttons saying, "You Gotta Wanta."

In their case the imperative is to "want to make a sale;" in our case it is to want to use our thing, physical education, as the instrument or process for changing behavior (not all human behavior, just some small bits of behavior that are agreed upon as demanding priority consideration).

The Change Process

Dr. Miller presents the Clark and Guba change process model and his adaptation of this. I would comment a bit on both.

I find Clark and Guba's breakdown (Research, Development, Diffusion and Adoption) a workable description of the process of seeking answers and using the answers you find. It assumes of course that "seekers" and "users" are on the same team, or at least are desirous of serving each others interests.

Dr. Miller's elements (Research, Development, Dissemination, Demonstration, Implementation and Evaluation) are an expansion and refinement but require the same concomitant interest by seekers and users.

In my interpretation of the change process model the "research" element would resemble Dr. Miller's conception, although I would call it "the search for new goodies." My "development" is the process of refining, making replaceable, providing parameters for, identifying corridors of relevance for, the "goodies" or truths that one "finds" in research.

"Diffusion" or "dissemination" are essentially the same and involve getting the new secret out to the consumers. This is a marketing problem. I understand Dr. Miller's systems approach but would call it good marketing practice. If the "goodies" are real, and functional, they will be well received when made available.

Clark and Guba's "Adoption" of the new process will come with satisfaction received by the consumer. If the "goody" is really good and the physical education practitioner's life is made easier or professionally more satisfying, the process will be adopted and become common practice. *If the reward for change is high enough the consumer will pay the price and fight off his normal resistance to change.*

Dr. Miller's "demonstration" is the old demonstration project. His five typical problems are valid for that. My own version of "demonstration" is to *sell* the "goody," which implies that I would *really* hustle to make the sale. I would make my display case appealing to the hard-pressed and conversative physical education practitioners. I would make the buyer; the physical educator or the parent and taxpayer, want the new truths "so bad they could taste it."

"Implementation" can only mean all the problems of getting the purchaser to properly use the new technique. IBM and Xerox care enough about their equipment to provide regular, free service. They feel their reputation, and investment, are at stake so they teach you how to use the product and provide technical assistance as long as you need it. The United States Army follows a similar procedure with their Military Assistance Groups (MAG) that accompany sales of armaments by the U.S. government.

The business corporation also reserves the option of withdrawing obsolete equipment and replacing it with new. In education we should think more in terms of a technique being the best *available* resource at any given time.

"Evaluation" of the application of the new truth or process in changing student performance should be carried out by people with the same level of training and understanding as the researcher and developer of the process being evaluated. Such a person would need to devise a programmed evaluation system since the practitioners would far out-number the developers. This evaluation task is not the same as the assessment of individual pupil progress. That remains the task of the physical education practitioner.

And so we have suggested a whole new hierarchy of tasks. We must produce the professionals to perform them.

1) We must be convinced that behavior change is worth the effort and that physical education is a way of bringing about the desired behavior change.

2) We must define basic operational problems and set up research designs of a comprehensive and continuing nature to attack them.

3) We must agree on priorities and then launch continuing programs to build information systems leading to usable truths concerning how to do best what we need to do.

4) We must implement a system of seeking, refining, disseminating, demonstrating, implementing and monitoring and evaluating the materials and techniques we need to accomplish our priority goals in physical education.

Response to "Some Aspects of Research and Practice"

William G. Anderson
Teachers College
Columbia University

First let me say that I find myself in complete sympathy with what I perceive to be Dr. Miller's basic message – *i.e.* when one carefully examines the gap between research and teaching, he cannot help but be overwhelmed by the number and size of the obstacles to bridge building. Indeed, Dr. Miller's characterizations of the obstacles are so impressive that they make his model for change and his suggestions for closing the gap appear rather futile. In this respect, his paper depicts the nature of conditions in the real world – realistically the picture is not very bright.

As I read Dr. Miller's report, I realized that his characterization of this entire problem reflected the vantage point from which he views it. It occurred to me that there are probably at least three major vantage points from which to examine this gap: (1) the researcher's side of the gap; (2) the teacher's side of the gap; (3) a point somewhere on the bridge between the two – albeit a bridge in rather poor condition. (Of course that makes the third vantage point "a view from the bridge.")

It seems to me that Dr. Miller's view is a view from the bridge – at a point relatively close to the researcher's side of the gap. I place Dr. Miller at this point because, although he sees both ends of the bridge, he tends to see the gap as it faces the researcher and he tends to see the business of bridge building as proceeding primarily from the researcher toward the teacher.

I don't quarrel with this vantage point – it is as good as any other. In fact, it is probably the most common vantage point for persons who write on this topic.

As it happens, I have a different vantage point. Although I too am on the bridge, I tend to view the problem from a point somewhat closer to the teacher's side of the gap. As a consequence, the features of the gap look somewhat different to me, as do the implements for bridge building.

Let me briefly cite a few examples of these differences.

As I look at the gap, the first thing that strikes me is the enormous problem of implementation -- not because it comes first in some logical sequence, but because it dwarfs everything else in view. Clearly the whole enterprise of bridge-building must depend eventually on the ability of practicing teachers to change their day-to-day performance over extended periods of time. Given the innumerable factors which mitigate against such changes, I cannot help but regard this as the pre-eminent barrier. It follows then, from my vantage point, that perhaps the most crucial feature of bridge building is the task of building teachers and teaching environments that facilitate the implementation of new practices and concepts.

From my viewpoint the problem identified by Dr. Miller as "dissemination of information" looks more like a problem of "acquisition of information". Effective communication depends in large part on having active receivers of messages as well as skillful senders. No doubt researchers in physical education can be faulted for their failure to communicate with teachers. But in the long run the larger dimension of the problem would seem to be the failure of teachers to be actively receptive to messages of all types – including those of the researcher. If we are to enhance communication in the future, the most formidable task facing us is the cultivation of teachers with the interest and ability to actively acquire relevant information.

One more view from my vantage point; this has to do with the issue of irrelevant research. It is quite apparent that the great bulk of research in our field is not relevant to the needs and interests of teachers. From the teacher's side of the gap this is only a natural outgrowth of the structure of the entire educational system and particularly its power structure – a system which places teachers at the bottom along with students. I have a suggestion for getting relevant research done: (1) Give committees of teachers responsibility for directing graduate research facilities. (2) Give them the power to grade faculty members (A,B,C, etc.) on the basis of the relevance of their research to teaching. (3) Make faculty salaries and promotions dependent on their grade-point average. (4) By all means, fire all faculty members who fail their oral examination before committees of teachers. A preposterous suggestion? Certainly! *Yet it is this very sort of power structure, in reverse, that helps to insure the continued irrelevance of research to teaching.*

Several other features of the gap look different from my vantage point but these few examples will have to suffice.

In summary, when viewed from the teacher's side of the bridge, the business of bridge building seems to require more construction work going from the teacher's side of the gap toward the researcher's side.

As an afterthought may I add that viewing the gap from different vantage points turns out to be a depressing exercise. It only makes the dimensions of the obstacles more clear and the prospects for successful bridge building more dim.

The President's Report

Charles R. Kovacic

The following constitutes a summary of the activities carried on by your president during 1968.

1) With the approval of the Executive Council, appointed the chairman and members of all standing committees.
2) Served as a member of the Convention Program Committee.
3) Corresponded with all committee chairmen concerning the progress of the work of their committees and, where possible, assisted them.
4) Presided at the meeting of the Executive Council held in St. Louis in connection with the AAHPER meeting in March, 1968.
5) Prepared material for three President's NEWSLETTERS published during 1968.
6) Prepared the annual NCPEAM Report to AAHPER.
7) Sent a telegram to President Johnson congratulating him on the establishment of the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports to be chaired by Vice-President Humphrey.
8) Appointed Rich Donnelly to serve as a member of the AAHPER Committee to Write a Position Paper for College Physical Education.
9) Appointed Deane Richardson to act as the Nonvoting Representative to AAHPER Representative Assembly from July 15, 1968 to July 14, 1969.
10) Appointed Burris Husman to serve as NCPEAM Ex-Officio representative to the AAHPER Legislative Committee.
11) Appointed Rich Donnelly to represent NCPEAM at the inauguration of Malcolm Charles Moos as the 10th President of the University of Minnesota, May 9, 1968.
12) Appointed Pete Yost to represent NCPEAM at the inauguration of James Harlow as President of the West Virginia University, September 14, 1968.
13) Appointed Bob Kaplan to represent NCPEAM at the Fifth National Conference on Health in College Communities to be held April 14-17, 1970 in Boston.
14) Appointed Hal Alterowitz and Bob Antonacci to represent NCPEAM at the AAHPER Conference of Teachers and Supervisors of Elementary School Physical Education, October 2-5, 1968.
15) Served as a member of the QUEST Advisory Board.

I wish to express my deepest gratitude to the officers, committee chairmen, and members who have contributed to the work of the Association during this past year. Special thanks go to the Executive Committee, the Convention Program Committee, and John Friedrich and his crew for a job well done. Finally, on behalf of the Association, as well as for myself personally, great appreciation is extended to "Pat" Mueller for the marvelous job he has done in shaping up the affairs, financial and otherwise, of the Association. In closing, I want to thank all of you for allowing me to serve as your president.

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS, AND DISBURSEMENTS, AND FUND BALANCES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDED NOVEMBER 30, 1968

FUND BALANCE DECEMBER 1, 1967		$ 4 015 82
RECEIPTS:		
Membership dues	$ 9 633 00	
Publication proceeds	547 70	
Total receipts		10 180 70
		$ 14 196 52
DISBURSEMENTS:		
Printing	$ 571 85	
Office supplies and expenses	231 73	
Secretarial and clerical	683 33	
Addressograph and mailing	748 56	
Newsletters	333 33	
Proceedings publication – 1967	4 754 52	
Proceedings publication – 1968 (Note)	3 800 00	
Quest monographs	1 854 00	
Bank charges and discounts	11 81	
Convention expenses and fees – 1968	859 23	
Convention expenses and fees – 1969 (Note)	600 00	
Officers expenses and fees	1 202 43	
Audit	130 00	
Miscellaneous	86 00	
Total disbursements		15 866 79
Excess disbursements over receipts		$ (1 670 27)
Add transfer from permanent fund		4 313 64
FUND BALANCE NOVEMBER 30, 1968		$ 2 643 37

SUMMARY OF FUND BALANCE

Checking account – The Champaign National Bank Champaign, Illinois	$ 83 54
– University National Bank Minneapolis, Minnesota	2 559 83
Total funds November 30, 1968	$ 2 643 37

See Note below.

PERMANENT FUND

PERMANENT FUND BALANCE DECEMBER 1, 1967	$ 4 075 98
Interest	237 66
	$ 4 313 64
Less:	
Amount transferred to checking account (Note)	4 313 64
PERMANENT FUND BALANCE NOVEMBER 30, 1968	$ -0-

NOTE: Permanent fund balance was transferred to the operating fund for printing of 1968 Proceedings and for 1969 Convention expenses.

CONVENTION MANAGER'S REPORT
72nd ANNUAL NCPEAM CONFERENCE

John Friedrich

As directed by the operating code manual, the following report is submitted on the 72nd annual NCPEAM Conference.

Introduction

We were honored to be able to serve as host for the 1969 NCPEAM Convention, and we were very pleased with the turn-out. We feel that the Convention was most successful inasmuch as there has been a great deal of favorable reaction to it. The hotel service was good. The hospitality hours appeared to be well accepted, and the program for the wives was indicated as being quite favorable by the participants involved. I feel that the members of our local committee did an outstanding job in handling the many details with which they were involved.

Committees

In September of 1967 the following Duke University faculty members were asked to serve as chairmen of the various sub-committees:

Assistant convention manager and chairman for arrangements – John LeBar
Registration and information – Bruce Corrie
Publicity – Al Buehler and Stan Coble
Receptions and banquets – John Riebel
Wives' activities – Kay Ann Friedrich and Jane Corrie

In accepting hotel arrangements an agreement was made with the Jack Tar Durham Hotel in January 1967. Rooms available, costs of rooms, and arrangements for complimentary rooms were negotiated.

Our local committee then visited with hotel representatives several times in order to make specific arrangements regarding programs. By November 1967 almost all significant hotel arrangements were finalized. Room assignments were made and meeting areas were scheduled. Finalization of plans for luncheons and social hours were made at this time also.

Attendance Report on Conference and Special Activities

Paid members in attendance	249
Guests	9
Wives	20
Total, including wives	278

(Note – numerous other staff members and wives from Duke were present periodically, however these were not included in the numbers above)

On bus tour of Durham and Duke	46
Attended cocktail buffet	155
Attended luncheon	94
Attended FCA Breakfast	48
Participated in handball match	24

Most all of the wives present participated in the various activities in the wives' program which included besides the bus tour, a trip to Burlington, North Carolina, a tour of the tobacco factories, two coffee hours, a trip to Chapel Hill and the University of North Carolina, and several other visits.

Committee Activities – General

Several meetings were held by the local committee to discuss and plan for the Convention. Extensive communication was carried on between officers of the association and the convention manager in reference to plans that were made. Arrangements were made locally for two of the main speakers on the program, Dr. Alexander and Dr. Baker. Copies of the convention program were mailed out to all the colleges in North Carolina as well as the larger colleges and universities in the surrounding states. These were sent out approximately one month prior to the meeting. The convention manager attended various meetings of the board including the meeting held at the AAHPER convention in St. Louis.

Recommendations for the Future

The following suggestions are made on the basis of the experiences of our convention this year.

1) Start as early as possible to arrange for speakers at the general session.
2) Check well in advance with the hotel concerning all arrangements and prices. Get the quotes on prices in writing for future reference.
3) If possible, make use of the local host university's visual equipment. This was done at the Durham convention and resulted in our not having to spend any money for this particular phase of the program.
4) Provide the committee hosts and hostesses with identification ribbons. These enable members to identify people to whom they can go for assistance and information.
5) Provide a poster with pictures of convention speakers. This was done and was well received by members present.
6) Provide for some sort of social hour the first evening of the convention. At the Durham convention two social hours were held. However, it is felt that one of these might have been adequate. By and large this phase of the program was very well received by most participants.
7) Mail out early information concerning the convention as well as brief descriptive information concerning NCPEAM to all colleges in the state and surrounding states.
8) Plan for a wives' coffee hour the first morning of the convention as well as the second morning. At these coffee hours let the wives make more specific plans concerning visits, tours, and the like. It was felt that at the Durham Convention, since there were no more than twenty wives, the simplest procedure for taking tours was to use cars made available by local wives. This worked out quite satisfactorily and provided much more opportunity to plan a variety of tours and visits. Furthermore, it was not necessary to hire a bus.
9) The thirty minute breaks between meetings were well received and should be continued.
10) Section chairmen should make sure that all participants in their meetings notify the convention manager so that arrangements for audio-visual aids can be made. Two cases were left to the last minute which resulted in unneeded confusion.

We are grateful we have had the opportunity to serve our association and our profession in this capacity.

Quest Advisory Board Report

Rich Donnelly

The following items summarize the actions of the Quest Advisory Board at its annual meeting held in St. Louis during the 1968 AAHPER Convention.

1) The Board approved the Quest budget of $7898.99 for 3-1-68 to 2-28-69. Considerable discussion ensued over the financial problems faced by *Quest*. Rising operating and publishing costs have increased to the point that an increase in income is needed in order to meet anticipated expenses. The additional income is needed for the next *Quest* fiscal year, March 1, 1969 to February 28, 1970. The Board suggested that the allotment to *Quest* from NAPECW and NCPEAM be raised by $1.00 per member per year. The current allotment is $2 per member per year.
2) The Board approved the following motion: "Effective September 1, 1968, library orders, individual subscriptions, and individual back orders of *Quest* will be $4 per copy, except that orders for 15 or more copies will remain $2 per issue."
3) The Board approved the following motion: "The Business Manager shall be empowered to have *Quest I* reprinted at his discretion and it will be sold for $4 per copy." The reprint was to be available after September 1, 1968.
4) The Board approved the following motion: "Dave Bischoff's term as Business Manager will be extended one more year, namely through 1968-69." A new Business Manager will be needed to take over in September, 1969. NAPECW will search for a candidate and try to find a person who will serve preferably for a 4-year term; and if this is not possible, a 2-year term as minimum.
5) A new Associate Editor will be nerded for *Quest* by the Spring of 1969 to replace Margaret Mordy who will move up to Editor. NCPEAM will search for a person to be named the Associate Editor who must serve two years as Associate Editor and then two more years as Editor.
6) The Board approved the following motion: "The Quest Advisory Board approves the Quest Agreement." This agreement governs the disposition of funds remaining in the *Quest* account should the publication of *Quest* cease for any reason.
7) The Board discussed and approved several changes in the Operating Code for the Quest Advisory Board.

Quest Advisory Board

Betty McCue, University of Oregon, Eugene (Chairman) NAPECW, 1966-69.

Rich Donnelly, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, NCPEAM, 1967-70.

Pearl Berlin, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, NAPECW, 1968-71.

Marion Broer, University of Washington, Seattle, President of NAPECW, 1968-69.

Charles Kovacic, University of California, Davis, President of NCPEAM, 1968-69.

Ex-Officio Non-Voting Members:

Marvin Eyler, University of Maryland, College Park, Editor, 1967-69.

Margaret Mordy, Ohio State University, Columbus, Associate Editor, 1967-69.

David Bischoff, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Business-Circulation Mgr., 1965-69.

QUEST AGREEMENT

If for any reason the publication "QUEST" ceases publication the funds remaining in the *QUEST* account after all outstanding debts have been paid will be divided between NCPEAM and NAPECW in the proportion of the number of paid members on February 28 of the year following dissolution.

S/ Marion Broer President, NAPECW	March 31, 1968 Date
S/ Charles Kovacic President, NCPEAM	March 31, 1968 Date

February, 1968

PROPOSED QUEST BUDGET

March 1, 1968 to February 28, 1969

Cash on Hand – March 1, 1968	$ 694.99	
Estimated Income:		
NAPECW 1600 Members @ $2.00	3,200.00	
NCPEAM 950 Members @ $2.00	1,900.00	
Library subscriptions 278 @ $4.00	1,112.00	
Individual subscriptions 48 @ $4.00	192.00	
Back issue sales 400 @ $2.00	800.00	
		$7,898.99
Estimated Expenses:		
QUEST X	$3,500.00	
QUEST XI	3,500.00	
Editor's Expenses (QUEST X, XI)	300.00	
Associate Editor's Expenses	50.00	
Business Manager's Expenses	400.00	
Copyrights (X, XI)	12.00	
Dr. Berlia's Gift	95.00	
Annual Audit	25.00	
Contingency	16.00	
		$7,898.99

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING
ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI
MARCH 30, 1968

MEMBERS PRESENT: Lou Alley, Charles Kovacic, David Matthews, C.E. Mueller, Chalmer Hixson, Martin Rogers, Arnold Flath, Dale Hanson, Frank Bearden.

OTHERS IN ATTENDANCE: Andrew J. Kozar, Larry Locke, Robert Bland, John Friederich, Sheldon Fordham.

1) The meeting was called to order at 10:55 A.M. by President Kovacic.
2) The agenda was distributed and minutes of the January 13, 1968 meeting were approved.
3) John Friederich reported that convention committees have been making preparations for the January, 1969 convention at Durham, North Carolina. He has assembled a list of outstanding potential speakers for the general sessions. A question was raised about paying honorariums to section meeting speakers. Although the President's contingency fund may only be used to pay for general session speakers, it does not preclude the possibility of section chairmen obtaining financial aid from sources outside of the Association for section meeting speakers. The Council agreed that arrangements for the Fellowship of Christian Athlete's Breakfast should be made by FCA rather than by the Association. John Friederich will approach the Duke Chapter to ascertain their interests in sponsoring a breakfast at the 1969 meeting.
4) Sheldon Fordham reported that he has contacted the Chicago-Sheraton Hotel about the possibility of serving as the Convention Hotel for December, 1969. Frank Bearden indicated that the Houston Rice Hotel raised the room rates from what was stated in the contract and the NCPEAM members could request refunds if they so desire.
5) President Kovacic identified the following corrections and additions for NCPEAM committees.
   a. J. Edmund Welch replaced Bruce Bennett as chairman of the Historical Records Committee.
   b. Bob Salmon's name was inadvertently omitted from the Historical Records Committee.
   c. Burris Husman is appointed as a Continuing Member of the Legislative Committee.
   d. Andy Kozar will assume all of the responsibilities for the Intercollegiate Athletics Section Meeting.
6) Frank Bearden MOVED and Arnold Flath seconded a MOTION to officially recognize Andy Kozar as the Chairman of the Intercollegiate Athletics Section replacing Wayne Crawford who must discontinue the position because of illness. The MOTION passed.
7) C.E. Mueller reported on the status of the membership and the treasury. He also indicated that the mailing service had been transferred from the New Jersey commercial agency to the University of Minnesota mailing service. This will result in substantial savings in time and money.
8) The Secretary-Treasurer also recommended a change for printing the PROCEEDINGS. Because of extended delays in publishing the PROCEEDINGS in previous years, the AAHPER was approached about the possibility of terminating NCPEAM'S agreement with them to serve as the publisher. The AAHPER agreed that under the circumstances it would be mutually beneficial to discontinue the agreement at this time. Although it

will be necessary to pay for 1967 and 1968 printing costs during the current fiscal year, it was recommended that the PROCEEDINGS be published by the University of Minnesota Printing Department. Accordingly, a MOTION was made to cancel the arrangement with AAHPER and to publish the PROCEEDINGS at the University of Minnesota Printing Department. The MOTION was seconded and carried.

9) It was reported that printing costs of the PROCEEDINGS increased approximately $1500 over the previous year. President Kovacic will appoint a committee to study the PROCEEDINGS in an attempt to determine whether there are some materials which may be deleted or modified to reduce the total cost.

10) In view of the increased cost of publication, it was noted that the Association is selling extra copies of the PROCEEDINGS at a loss. The current price is $3.00 per copy and the printing cost is in excess of $4.00 per copy. A MOTION was made and seconded that the cost of the PROCEEDINGS, beginning September, 1968, shall be $5.00 per copy. The MOTION passed.

11) Chalmer Hixson reported that the Legislative Committee would meet later during the AAHPER convention. A notice will be put in the next NEWSLETTER regarding Burris Husman's summary of the symposium on legislation held in Washington, D.C., regarding Title Four of the National Defense Education Act and the Educational Professional Development Act.

12) Dave Matthews resubmitted his proposal to have NCPEAM support the unsold copies of a *Directory of Professional Education Programs in Physical Education, Recreation, and Health in American and Canadian Institutions of Higher Education.* The Directory will be compiled by Matthews and published by the Stipes Publishing Company, Champaign, Illinois. Although the publisher will underwrite the cost of publication, the proposal requested that NCPEAM guarantee the cost of unsold copies. A MOTION was made and seconded that the Association guarantee the cost of any unsold copies of 2,000 copies to be printed. The MOTION passed. It was also suggested that this pamphlet should be sold to high school counselors and that attempts should be made to secure advertising to aid in financing the project.

13) The meeting adjourned at 12:20 P.M.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING

DURHAM, NORTH CAROLINA
January 8, 1969

MEMBERS PRESENT: Lou Alley, Don Bailey, Frank Bearden, Arnold Flath, Chalmer Hixson, Charles Kovacic, David Matthews, C.E. Mueller, and Martin Rogers.

OTHERS IN ATTENDANCE: Dave Bischoff, Robert Bland, T. Erwin Blesh, Ken Church, Richard J. Donnelly, Sheldon Fordham, John Friedrich, Bob Korsgaard, Larry Locke, John Reno, Robert Salmons, George VanBibber, and Edmund Welch.

1) The meeting was called to order at 7:10 P.M. by President Kovacic.

2) Minutes of the March 30, 1968 meeting were approved as distributed.

3) The following committee reports were received:
   a. Convention Committee – Friedrich and Matthews
   b. Historical Records – Welch
   c. Joint Committee – Kovacic
   d. Construction and Equipment – Bischoff
   e. Utilization of Educational Television – Hixson
   f. 1970 Convention – Fordham

4) Blesh submitted the Constitution Committee's Report involving the following motions:
   a. MOTION by Rogers, second by Bearden, to amend Article III, Section 4 of The By-Laws, to read "The Secretary-Treasurer shall be bonded by the Association to the sum of ten thousand dollars ($10,000.00) per annum." PASSED.
   b. MOTION by Rogers, second by Flath, to amend Article XI, Section 5 of The By-Laws, to read "The fiscal year shall extend from September 1st through August 31st." PASSED.
   c. MOTION by Hixson, second by Bearden, to refer to the Constitution Committee the question of deleting the last sentence in Article I, Section 2, of the By-Laws because the statement is no longer relevant. PASSED. Article I of the By-Laws is also to be interpreted that membership in the Association will not include high school physical education teachers.

5) VanBibber reported no changes in the Policies of the Association. However, the interim action of the Executive Council involving permission to reprint articles from the PROCEEDINGS was referred to the Policies Committee.

6) MOTION by Hixson, second by Bearden, that in the future the Annual PROCEEDINGS shall be copyrighted. PASSED.

7) Korsgaard presented to resolutions which were moved by him and seconded by Bearden that (a) NCPEAM endorse the 1940 AAUP Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure, and (b) appreciation be extended to the Convention Manager and Committee for the 1969 arrangements and accommodations. PASSED.

8) The Operating Codes Committee report was given by Reno, after which he MOVED and Matthews seconded the recommendation that the Legislative Code Revisions be accepted and that the Secretary-Treasurer up-date the Operating Codes Manual. PASSED.

9) Sprague presented the recommendations of the Time and Site Committee. MOTION by Hixson, second by Blesh, that the 1971 Convention be held in Portland, Oregon, on December 27th-30th, 1970. PASSED.

10) President Kovacic reported for the Membership Committee. MOTION by Hixson, second by Blesh, to accept Committee's recommendations for Honorary Membership in the Association. PASSED. Criteria for Honorary Membership was referred to the Membership Committee, requesting them to give consideration to (a) service to NCPEAM, (b) professional retirement, and (c) number of years of membership in the Association.

11) The QUEST report was given by Donnelly. MOTION by Korsgaard, second by Flath, that NCPEAM increase the annual contribution to QUEST from $2.00 to $3.00 per member. PASSED. NCPEAM must appoint a member to the QUEST Advisory Board for next year.

12) MOTION by Blesh, second by Bearden, that Larry Locke be appointed Associate Editor of QUEST. PASSED.

13) The Secretary-Treasurer reviewed the fiscal year 1968, and presented the 1969 Budget in behalf of the Finance Committee. MOTION by Korsgaard, second by Bearden, that the proposed 1969 Budget be accepted. PASSED.

14) The meeting adjourned at 10:15 P.M.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING

DURHAM, NORTH CAROLINA
January 9, 1969

MEMBERS PRESENT: Lou Alley, Don Bailey, Frank Bearden, Arnold Flath, Charles Kovacic, Dave Matthews, C.E. Mueller, and Martin Rogers.

OTHERS IN ATTENDANCE: T. Erwin Blesh, Ken Church, Sheldon Fordham, Larry Locke, Jim Odenkirk, and Robert Salmons.

1) The meeting was called to order at 7:50 A.M. by President Kovacic.

2) The minutes of the January 8th Meeting were approved as read.

3) The following Committee Reports were received:
   a. Public Relations – Church
   b. Legislative Committee – Odenkirk

4) President Kovacic presented the Foreign Relations Committee Report. MOTION by Bearden, second by Flath, that the name of the Committee be changed to "The International Relations Committee". PASSED.

5) Necrology Committee Chairman Fordham reported that memorial certificates have been prepared for Spurgeon Cherry, Wayne Crawford, Robert Fetzer, Laurence Mullins, Clarence Ossel, George Stafford, and Leslie Swain.

6) Alley presented recommendations of the Nominating Committee. MOTION by Flath, second by Rogers, that the nominations be accepted. PASSED.

7) The Section Chairmen reviewed their programs for the present convention.

8) MOTION by Bearden, second by Flath, to accept the recommendation of the Constitution Committee that the last sentence of Article I, Section 2, of the By-Laws be deleted. PASSED.

9) MOTION by Matthews, second by Bearden, to accept the recommendation of the Policy Committee that the QUEST statement on reprints be revised to apply to the NCPEAM PROCEEDINGS and that it be prominently displayed on the inside back cover of the annual PROCEEDINGS. PASSED.

10) The meeting adjourned at 8:45 A.M.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING

[illegible]AM, NORTH CAROLINA
January 11, 1969

MEMBERS PRESENT: Frank Bearden, Robert Bland, Sheldon Fordham, Charles Kovacic, Larry Locke, Dave Matthews, C.E. Mueller, and Bob Salmons.

OTHERS IN ATTENDANCE: Wayne Brumbach, Ed Malon, Muska Mosston, Carl Peterson, and Earle Zeigler.

1) The meeting was called to order at 7:55 A.M. by President Matthews.
2) Minutes of the January 9, 1969 meeting were approved as read.
3) MOTION by Salmons, second by Fordham, that NCPEAM membership in the National Art Museum of Sport be renewed by paying the one hundred dollars ($100.00) dues. PASSED.
4) MOTION by Locke, second by Bearden, that the "going rate" for reprinting PROCEEDINGS' articles shall be fifty dollars ($50.00) per article. PASSED.
5) Malon, representing the Joint Committee, presented a Statement of Administrative Organization of Physical Education and Intercollegiate Athletic Programs which had been prepared by the Committee. The report was received, but action will be delayed until next year's annual meeting.
6) Brumbach and Zeigler presented a petition for the establishment of a Graduate Education Section. Following a general discussion, it was the consensus of the Executive Council that time and space should be provided at the next annual Convention for special interest groups such as Graduate Education, Junior Colleges, and Philosophy. These groups must contact the Program Committee Chairman to identify their interests which will be scheduled in the official program. This arrangement met with the approval of the petitioners.
7) The next meeting of the Executive Council will be held at the AAHPER Convention, 9:00 A.M. Saturday, April 12, 1969, in the Clarendon Room, Sheraton-Boston Hotel, Boston, Massachusetts.
8) The meeting adjourned at 9:30 A.M.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

MINUTES, ASSOCIATION BUSINESS

FIRST GENERAL SESSION

DURHAM, NORTH CAROLINA
January 9, 1969

1) The meeting was called to order at 4:10 P.M. by President Kovacic.
2) Friedrich introduced the guest speaker, Dr. Irving Alexander, Chairman of the Department of Psychology, Duke University.

3) Kovacic presented the annual President's Report.

4) The following Committee reports were received:
   a. Joint Committee – Kovacic for Bowen
   b. Construction and Equipment – Kovacic for Bischoff
   c. Educational Television – Reno
   d. Convention Program – Matthews
   e. Foreign Relations – Clay
   f. Historical Records – Welch

5) The following Committee reports were accepted:
   a. Time and Site – Sprague
   b. QUEST – Donnelly
   c. Operating Codes – Reno
   d. Constitution – Blesh. The three amendments of the Constitution Committee were unanimously approved.

6) The meeting adjourned at 5:35 P.M.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

SECOND GENERAL SESSION

DURHAM, NORTH CAROLINA
January 10, 1969

1) The meeting was called to order at 11:05 A.M. by President Kovacic.

2) The Secretary-Treasurer's report was approved as read by Mueller.

3) Alley presented the Nominations Committee report.
President-Elect – Marv Eyler and Chalmer Hixson
Member-At-Large – Frank Bearden and Bob Korsgaard
Secretary-Treasurer – C.E. Mueller

4) Results of the Election were as follows:
President-Elect – Chalmer Hixson, Member-At-Large – Frank Bearden, and Secretary-Treasurer – C.E. Mueller.

5) The following Committee reports were received:
   a. Legislative – Odenkirk b. Public Relations – Church

6) The following Committee reports were accepted:
   a. Finance – Ziegler c. Policy – VanBibber
   b. Necrology – Fordham d. Resolutions – Korsgaard

7) Breen reported for the Membership Committee, which recommended the following individuals for Honorary Membership in NCPEAM: Steve Rostas, Mitchell Gary, Joy Kistler, Paul Keen, and Ernest Smith. A MOTION to accept the recommendation of the Committee PASSED. The remainder of the Committee Report involving criteria for Honorary Membership was tabled.

8) Old Business: None.

9) New Business:

   a. Mosston raised the question about the possibility of NCPEAM merging with NAPECW. A MOTION was made and seconded that the President-Elect appoint an *ad hoc* committee or utilize an existing committee to investigate whether this matter should be pursued. PASSED.
   b. MOTION made and seconded that, at the Chicago Convention, arrangements be made for bringing together those interested in placement opportunities. PASSED.
   c. Hixson requested a reaction to a Section on the Philosophy of Physical Education, and Longley asked that more emphasis be given to Junior Colleges.

10) The meeting adjourned at 12:20 P.M.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

STANDING COMMITTEES

CONSTITUTION COMMITTEE

The Executive Council and various committees of the NCPEAM were contacted with respect to possible changes in the Constitution. As a result of the correspondence, the Constitution Committee wishes to make the following recommendations in the By-Laws:

1) Article III (Section 4)
   It is suggested that the last sentence in Section 4 of Article III read as follows: "The Secretary-Treasurer shall be bonded by the Association to the sum of ten thousand dollars ($10,000.00) per annum." The present Constitution reads five thousand dollars ($5,000.00) and the present Secretary-Treasurer is bonded for ten thousand dollars ($10,000.00).
2) Article XI (Section 5)
   It is suggested that this be changed to read as follows: "The fiscal year shall extend from September 1 through August 31.". At present, it reads from December 1 through November 30.
3) Article I (Membership and Dues)
   Evidently, there is need for clarification of this Article which has to do with membership in the NCPEAM. The question has arisen as to whether men teaching in levels other than college should be eligible for membership. The present Article on membership does not make this very clear, and it would seem that the Constitution Committee, when it meets this January, should discuss this at further length.
4) Article I (Section 2)
   It is recommended that the last sentence of this section, "Applications for membership must be accompanied by a supportive letter from a member in good standing," be deleted because this practice is no longer followed.

Respectfully submitted,
T. Erwin Blesh
Chairman

FINANCE COMMITTEE

The Committee conducted its business by mail, and made every effort to follow its operating code insofar as this was possible. Initially, the Chairman corresponded with the Secretary-Treasurer, who was making every effort to prepare a proposed budget for the 1969 year. Members of the Committee were contacted and informed that this information would be forthcoming shortly. Subsequently, they were asked to react to the budget proposed. One member suggested that the Committee ought to be more actively involved in the entire process. He stressed further that the Association ought to try to hold the line, at least temporarily, on dues, and hope that increased membership would brighten the overall financial picture. There was concern further that the investment fund (or factor) was a fluctuating one in the overall financial picture. Still further, the Executive Council was urged to consider other possible sources of income such as gifts of money from members either now or perhaps in their wills.

The proposed budget for the 1969 year is typically considered very carefully by the Executive Council, and the recommendations from the Committee, as well as the Secretary-Treasurer, are weighed in the light of the prevailing financial picture of the Association. The budget proposal at this point (December 18, 1968) follows:

PROPOSED BUDGET FOR 1969

BALANCE FORWARD		
Estimated Balance December 1, 1968		$ 2200.00
RECEIPTS		
Membership Dues	1000 @ $10.00	10000.00
Publication Sales		1100.00
	TOTAL RECEIPTS	$13300.00
EXPENDITURES		
PROCEEDINGS[1]		$ 4000.00
QUEST[2]	1000 @ $3.00	$ 3000.00
NEWSLETTER[3]		400.00
Annual Meeting		600.00
General Operations[4]		1800.00
Services		700.00
President's Contingency Fund[5]		400.00
Officer's Travel Fund		600.00
	TOTAL EXPENDITURES[6]	$11500.00

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[1] Increase of $1100.00

[2] Increase of $1000.00

[3] Decrease of $ 300.00

[4] Increase of $ 300.00

[5] Decrease of $ 700.00

[6] The Executive Council, at its discretion, will decide how much can be invested (based on the balance on hand after expenditures are met).

Respectfully submitted,
Earle F. Zeigler
Chairman

FOREIGN RELATIONS COMMITTEE

The need for additional work in international relations and the sense of collective responsibility of the membership of NCPEAM seems to have increased since 1965. And, as was reported in 1966, many of our members remain actively engaged in ICHPER, with the International Relations Section of AAHPER, as members of the Fulbright-Hays selection committee as consultants and in other capacities. An anticipated increased federal interest in cooperative international efforts in sports and physical education has, however, been negatively affected by general federal fund cutbacks.

We have seen a program projection of 1965 successfully completed – an evaluation of the accepted contributions of European systems of physical education, both East and West, at the San Diego Convention; the focusing of attention on the 1968 Olympics in Mexico at the Houston Convention and the establishment of criteria for comparative physical education with the current meeting – 1968-9.

The Committee has (1) offered cooperation to its counterpart in AAHPER; (2) suggested a revision of its name to "International Relations Committee"; (3) some of its members have continued their interests in Mexico and the Olympics in responsible research, either undertaken or presented; (4) it has concerned itself with the preparation of what should be a good section meeting at the 1968-9 Convention; (5) finally, at this (Duke) Convention it will draft proposals for change and for its future.

Respectfully submitted,
Maurice Clay
Chairman

HISTORICAL RECORDS COMMITTEE

1) The committee has been active through correspondence this past year. A meeting of the committee has been scheduled for January 8, 1969 in Durham, North Carolina.
2) Arnold Flath, past chairman, indicated that two main tasks needed to be accomplished during 1968. They were as follows:
    A. Work out policies for use of NCPEAM historical materials now located in the Physical Education Library of the University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois.
    B. Secure a graduate student to write a thesis on the history of NCPEAM since 1950.
3) Policies for the use of the historical materials at the University of Illinois have been established. A copy of the policies appears at the end of this report.
4) As yet, a graduate student has not been secured to write the thesis, but Professors Earle Zeigler and Marianna Trekell are working on the attainment of this objective.
5) Professor Thomas E. McDonough, a past president of NCPEAM, is donating correspondence of his which relates to the history of the Association. Other past presidents have been contacted and requested to donate their pertinent correspondence. Several have indicated they will do so during the coming months. These letters and records will be deposited at the University of Illinois.
6) The committee will continue to work to preserve materials of historical interest relating to the Association.

Policies Concerning Use of Historical Materials of NCPEAM

The historical materials are located in the Physical Education Library of the University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois. Miss Jean Lokke is the Librarian, and Professor A.C. Moore of the University of Illinois is the NCPEAM Archivist.

Policies

1. Persons either on campus or visiting the campus may use the materials by contacting Miss Lokke or Professor Moore. If Miss Lokke is contacted, she will get the approval of Professor Moore by telephone. If Professor Moore is not available or not in town, Miss Lokke will give permission for use of the materials on proper identification. Persons visiting the campus should notify Miss Lokke in advance of their visit if at all possible.
2. Materials may be loaned with the approval of Professor Moore. Reproductions are available at 10 cents per copy.

Respectfully submitted,
J. Edmund Welch
Chairman

LEGISLATIVE COMMITTEE

The Legislative Committee has been active during the past year on several projects, which are briefly summarized as follows:

1) The Legislative Committee met in St. Louis at the National Convention of the AAHPER and specific revisions to the Operating Code of the Legistlative Committee were proposed and forwarded to the Executive Council of the NCPEAM for action at the annual meeting in Durham.
2) A major task was the development of a list of NCPEAM members who would serve as representatives for their respective states to obtain and distribute information related to legislative matters in physical education which pertained to their particular state and would be of interest to the total NCPEAM membership. This proposal and list of prospective state representatives were submitted to President Kovacic and the Executive Council for action.
3) Copies of Title IV of the National Education Act and The National Professional Development Act were prepared and forwarded to colleges and universities who requested them. This material was summarized by Burris Husman, who attended a National Symposium on Legislation in January, 1968.
4) Dr. Burris Husman of the University of Maryland, and previous Chairman of the NCPEAM Legislative Committee, has been appointed Member-At-Large to the committee on legislation of the American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. He has kept informed of the latest legislative proposals at the national level and has received reports from Margaret Duncan, Chairman of the NAPECW Legislative Committee.
5) C.G. Hixson, member of the Legislative Committee, presented a resolution which the Legislative Committee and the NCPEAM membership may consider for action. The

resolution asks for support by separate states to the stand of the National Federation of High School Athletic Associations and State High School Athletic Associations in their efforts to encourage Federal legislation to prevent professional football organizations from scheduling and telecasting Friday night football games which are in conflict with high school contests.

The Legislative Committee suggests that the NCPEAM sponsor some sort of a program at its annual meetings to discuss the political responsibilities of members of NCPEAM, that is, who do they write to (congressmen, etc.), what action can be taken, and related information. In other words, more needs to be done to make the organization and membership more sophisticated in this area.

I want to thank members of the committee for their excellent response to my correspondence during the past year, C.G. Hixson who chaired the committee meeting at the AAHPER National Convention, and the members of the NCPEAM for offering me the opportunity to serve in this capacity.

Respectfully submitted,
James E. Odenkirk
Chairman

MEMBERSHIP COMMITTEE

I. *Membership of Committee (with states assigned)*

Roger C. Wiley, Washington State University, Chairman (Washington, Oregon)
James R. Little, Honolulu, Hawaii (Canada, Hawaii, Alaska)
William W. Harkness, San Francisco State College (California, Wyoming, Idaho, Colorado)
Joseph E. Davis, Colorado School of Mines (Nevada, Utah, Arizona, New Mexico)
John E. Douthitt, North Texas State College (Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Mississippi, Alabama)
James L. Breen, Tulane University (Louisiana, Florida, Georgia, Tennessee, South Carolina)
D. Shelby Brightwell, Kansas State College (Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas)
Donald R. Casady, University of Iowa (Iowa, Illinois, Ohio, Pennsylvania)
William G. Helms, University of Michigan (Minnesota, Michigan, Wisconsin, Missouri)
Chester L. Palmer, State University College at Buffalo, (Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut)
Jack D. Begelman, Herbert H. Lehman College (New York, Maryland, New Jersey, Delaware, District of Columbia)
Richard C. Havel, Wayne State University (Indiana, Kentucky, Virginia, North Carolina, West Virginia)

II. *Work of the Committee*

The main function of the committee was to recruit qualified members of the association. This was accomplished by assigning to each member of the committee various states (please note above). In turn, each committee member was to use, with

their appointed state members, sample recruitment letters prepared by the chairman of the NCPEAM membership committee and the membership application flyer. Some of those participating in the various states were:
Don Wiseman, Western Washington State College
John B. Merriman, Southern Oregon College
Erwin T. Blesh, Yale University
Richard A. Costello, Gorham State Teachers College
Henry F. Dunbar, Amherst College
Paul E. Hartman, Plymouth State College
Dennis E. Lambert, Burlington, Vermont
Robert Korsgaard, Ball State University
Ellis J. Mendelsohn, University of Louisville
Nathan T. Dodson, Wake Forest College
Edward R. Slaughter, University of Virginia
Charles P. Yost, West Virginia University
David Bartelma, University of Colorado
Leon Green, University of Idaho
Bruce Dick, Laramie, Wyoming
Gordon Gray, Canada College

Committee members particularly effective in their membership recruiting efforts were Bill Harkness, Chet Palmer, Richard Havel, Shelby Brightwell, Jim Breen, Jack Begelman, Joe Davies, John Douthitt, James Little, and Don Casady.

A special assignment was given to the committee to study the criteria for honorary life membership. As is stated in Section 4, Article I of the BY-LAWS of the NCPEAM Constitution:

> "Honorary Life Membership may be conferred upon active members or former active members by a two-thirds (2/3) affirmative vote at a regular business meeting. Honorary life members shall enjoy all the rights and privileges of active members except the payment of dues."

Four criteria were considered by the comittee. They were:
1) Service to NCPEAM.
2) Consecutive membership and service to NCPEAM.
3) Consecutive membership to NCPEAM.
4) No restriction on nomination.

After considerable exchange of correspondence by the membership committee and others who had an interest, it is recommended that:

> The criteria for honorary life membership should be based on consecutive membership and service to NCPEAM.

What the specifics of the criteria should be, was not studied by the committee. Questions yet to be answered are:

> How long should consecutive membership be?
> How is service to NCPEAM to be evaluated?
> How will nominations be solicited?

It is obvious from the correspondence received and the nominations made that criteria 4 above (No restriction on nomination) has and is now being used.

Other recommendations of the chairman of the NCPEAM membership committee are:
1) Consideration of geographical location should be given in making appointments to

the NCPEAM membership committee.

Comment: Assignment of states is somewhat complicated since the disbursement of members on the committee is not even.

2) Include an NCPEAM Membership Blank in *Quest* and *JOHPER*.

Comment: This is a repeat of a recommendation made last year.

III. The Secretary-Treasurer reported a total of 1009 members of 1969, the largest membership in NCPEAM history. This was due, in part, to new addressograph and mailing arrangements which made it possible to mail two dues "reminder" notices to delinquent, 1967 members. The membership summary is as follows:

	1967	*1968*
Honorary Members	56	67
New Members	152	141
Active Members	679	801
Totals	887	1009

IV. *Nominations for Honorary Membership*

Several names have been received by the membership committee. These names will be referred to the Executive Council for discussion and their recommendations.

Respectfully submitted,
Roger C. Wiley
Chairman

NECROLOGY COMMITTEE

On October 7, 1968 letters were mailed to all committee members asking each of them to be responsible for a specific number of states which they would survey to obtain the necessary information for memorials to be presented at the annual meeting in January, 1969. A follow-up letter was mailed in November to all committee members reminding them of the necessity for providing information from their respective states. Several telephone calls were made in December requesting information.

At the time of this report, seven deaths among NCPEAM membership have been reported:

H. Spurgeon Cherry,
Wayne H. Crawford,
Robert H. Fetzer (honorary member),
Laurence A. Mullins,
Clarence R. Osell,
George T. Stafford (honorary member), and
Leslie E. Swain (honorary member).

Memorial statements have been prepared for these deceased members and certificates will be prepared and sent to the nearest of kin.

The chairman wishes to thank the members of the Necrology Committee for their efforts during the year. Thanks are also due to other members of the association who assisted in the work of the committee.

Respectfully submitted,
S.L. Fordham
Chairman

H. SPURGEON CHERRY (1911-1968)

H. Spurgeon Cherry, Jr. was born October 26, 1911, in Center Hill, Florida. He was educated in the public schools of Florida, graduated from Leesburg High School, and received his Bachelor of Science in Education degree from the University of Florida in 1935. At the University he was on the freshman football and baseball teams and captain of the freshman basketball team. He lettered in basketball three years, in football two years, one year in baseball and one year in track. He was elected to membership in Sigma Delta Psi, Phi Delta Kappa, and Florida Blue Key. He also belonged to various university societies while he was a student; he served as president of the Athletic Council and was a student member on the Faculty Athletic Committee while he was an undergraduate. His social fraternity was Pi Kappa Phi.

Dean Cherry's professional teaching experience began at Dixie County High School, Cross City, Florida, where he served as athletic director, teacher, and high school principal from 1935 to 1939. From there, he went to Hillsborough High School in Tampa as football coach and also as dean of boys from 1939 to 1942. In June of 1942, he accepted a position as Graduate Assistant in Physical Education at the University of Florida, but in August of 1942 he resigned in order to accept an appointment as Assistant Football Coach and Assistant Basketball Coach. He was the Head Basketball Coach in 1943, 1945, and 1946; there was no varsity team in 1944. In addition to coaching duties, Spurgeon Cherry completed his graduate work and earned the M.S. degree in 1943; during 1942 through 1944 he was a full-time instructor to trainees in both the Army-Air Force Pre-flight Training Program and the Army Specialized Training Program, at the University. In 1946, the College of Physical Education and Health was established and Mr. Cherry was promoted to the rank of Associate Professor of Physical Education and Health; he continued to serve as an active teaching professor in the undergraduate and graduate program of the Department of the Professional Curriculum, and as Chairman of the Department of Intramural Athletics and Recreation.

Mr. Cherry was affiliated with many state and national professional organizations, including the Florida Education Association; National Education Association; Florida Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; National College Physical Education Association for Men; Florida Coaches Association; National Intramural Association.

Spurgeon Cherry was an active participant in the professional associations of which he was a member. In the Florida Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, he served on many committees as member and as chairman, was a district director, Vice President for Physical Education, and in 1953-1954 he served as President of the Association. He was President of the Florida Coaches Association; President of the Suwannee Conference and of the Florida Big-Ten Association; in 1935 he was on the committee which established the division of Florida high schools into A and B classifications; in 1946, he was instrumental in establishing the Gainesville Officials Association. He worked diligently as a liaison officer between the Florida Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, High School Principals, County School Superintendents, and Coaches Associations.

Although Professor Cherry's teaching and coaching experience was in his native state of Florida, his influence was national in scope. In the Southern District of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, he served as Chairman of the Men's Athletic Section; Secretary of the College Men's Section; member of numerous committees, panel member and speaker at several convention meetings. At the national level, contributions of service to the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation include Chairman of the Intramurals Section; Chairman of the Officiating Section; member of the Division of Men's Athletics Advisory Committee and the Intramural Section Advisory Committee; Vice President of the AAHPER: Chairman of the Division of Men's Athletics: member of the Board of Directors of the AAHPER: and member of the Editorial Board for the Journal of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. In the National College Physical Education Association for Men he served on numerous committees and was Member-at-Large in 1964. He also participated as a speaker and consultant on convention programs and workshops at the national level.

In recognition of his service to the profession within the state, he received the Honor Award from the Florida Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in 1955; he received the Florida Coaches Association Honor Award, and in 1967 received the Distinguished Service Award from the Florida Coaches Association. In 1964, Spurgeon Cherry received the Honor Award from the Southern District of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, an area comprised of thirteen states in the southeast section of the country.

The facts, and the honors, are many, and inevitably some have been omitted from this accounting; they can hardly do justice to the goodness of the man known by all for his love of his family, his love for athletics and his concern for the fine qualities that athletics can instill in those who participate, his belief in and his efforts to do the right things, his high personal moral standards and character, and with it all a sincere humility and a cheerful, optimistic view of life which emanated from his own dynamic personality to benefit those with whom he associated, and endeared himself to them.

WAYNE HULBERT CRAWFORD (1917-1968)

Wayne Hulbert Crawford, first Chairman of the Physical Education Department and Director of Athletics at the University of California, Irvine, was born in Erie, Pennsylvania, March 30, 1917, and died of lung cancer May 29, 1968, age fifty-one. His father, a distinguished educator, was President of Edinboro State College, Pennsylvania; thus Wayne spent his childhood and early years in college and university communities. Early in life he dedicated himself to college teaching.

At Edinboro High School, Class of 1935, Wayne Crawford was both an excellent student and athlete: he was awarded fifteen varsity letters. At the University of Illinois he played both football and baseball; in 1939 he received his B.S. degree with a major in Physical Education.

Mr. Crawford began his teaching and coaching career at Sharon High School, Pennsylvania. After military service from 1942-46, during which time he served as a Physical Training Officer and as a commander of a naval gun crew, Mr. Crawford served one year as a Physical Education Instructor at the University of Pittsburg. He then began graduate studies at Columbia University where he received his M.A. (1947) and Ed.D. (1950). In 1948, he joined the Ball State College faculty for one year as an Assistant Professor of Physical Education and golf coach. For the next four years, 1949-53, Dr. Crawford was Chairman of Graduate Studies in Physical Education at the University of Florida. In 1953, he came to the faculty at the University of California, Riverside, as an Assistant Professor of Physical Education. This appointment marked the beginning of fifteen years of distinguished and dedicated service to the University.

As a member of the Physical Education Department's teaching and coaching staff at Riverside for eleven years, Dr. Crawford was primarily responsible for the planning of Riverside's physical education, athletics, and recreation facilities. He served for many years as the Assistant Chairman, and from 1962-64 was Acting Chairman and Director of Athletics.

In discharging his duties and responsibilities to the campus and the University, he served on many important committees, among them those on Privilege and Tenure, Campus Planning, and Non-Academic Personnel Appeals. He was active in the development of the Faculty Club on the Riverside campus, serving on the Board of Directors and as President of the Club. It is typical of his broad interests that he was largely responsible for the campus athletic competition and sports festivals which make Riverside such an interesting place for all students.

Wayne Crawford was well known in the city of Riverside for his role in community affairs. He contributed time and energy to the youth of the community through the city's Junior Tennis Development Program and in the development of the city's recreational facilities. He was active on the Riverside Tennis Club's Board of Directors, in the work of the Presbyterian Church, and in community charity drives – including those of the American Cancer Society.

Dr. Crawford served as Chairman of the Physical Education Department and Director of Athletics at the Irvine campus from July 1964 until his sudden illness in the fall of 1967. During that period he contributed to the general campus planning and program development in his service on administrative committees, with the responsibility of planning all physical education, recreation and athletic buildings and fields, staff recruitment, and departmental programs. Dr. Crawford's concept of physical activities emphasizing sports that can be played throughout a lifetime was an enlightened policy that found great acceptance among his UCI colleagues and offered an attractive example for other universities to follow.

UCI's athletic teams were immediately successful, and from their inception the campus received national recognition in every sport in which it competed. The records and honors established by the athletes in the three year history of the campus and the enthusiasm and support afforded the players and coaches by students, faculty, and the community are a lasting tribute to the leadership of Wayne Crawford. He sincerely believed that a strong program of intercollegiate athletics was an important part of campus life and wholly compatible with the aims and purposes of higher education.

Wayne Crawford was active in professional organizations. He served the California Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation in many capacities at both the district and state level. He was a member of its Executive Board and Chairman of its Constitution Committee. He conducted many worthwhile sports clinics for teachers and coaches in conjunction with professional conferences, and frequently presented talks on his specialties – facility planning and administration. In 1960 his professional associates presented him the Professional Achievement Award for the Tri-County Unit of the California Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation. For many years he was active in the National Association for College Physical Education, and in 1966 that organization honored him for his distinguished service by electing him Chairman of the Intercollegiate Athletics Committee.

He was a frequent contributor to leading professional journals on such topics as sports skill development, facility planning, teacher preparation, administration, and coaching. His authoritative book ***A Guide for Planning Indoor Facilities for College Physical Education*** (Columbia University Press, 1963) is a reference text used by many chairmen and directors responsible for planning physical education facilities.

Recalling the accomplishments of Wayne Crawford as a productive member of the University faculty cannot truly convey the personal charm and inner warmth for which he will be fondly remembered. He knew every member of the University's athletic teams by their first names and he was sincerely interested in them as both athletes and scholars. Wayne received enormous satisfaction from the accomplishments of the coaching staff and the athletic teams, but he never sought personal recognition for himself. "He lit his candle by their torches."

Dr. Crawford is survived by his wife, Marjorie, a son, David, and a daughter, Caroline. His life was cut short in the midst of a useful and successful career and he will be sorely missed by his colleagues and friends – and especially by those with whom he served in the Department of Physical Education at Irvine.

ROBERT A. FETZER (1887-1968)

"Coach Bob", as he was affectionately known to thousands of Tar Heels as well as athletic personnel throughout the Unites States, passed away on Sunday, May 19, at the age of 80.

Born September 9, 1887, Coach Bob attended Fishburne Military Academy, received his B.S. from Davidson College in 1907, an M.A. in 1908, and a B.S. in Engineering from Clemson College in 1909. From 1909 to 1913 he served as Football and Track Coach at Woodberry Forest. He went to Davidson College as Football Coach in 1914. He returned to Woodberrry Forest in 1919 and came to the University of North Carolina in 1921. While at Woodberry he taught physics and chemistry in addition to his coaching duties. Between his tenure at Davidson and his return to Woodberry Forest, he taught chemistry at North Carolina State University.

One of two athletic directors the University of North Carolina has had since 1923, Coach Bob arrived on the Carolina Campus in 1921 and for the next five years served as Co-coach of Football with his brother, Bill, compiling a record of 30 wins, 8 losses and 2 ties. Elevated to the position of Athletic Director in 1923, he held that position until his retirement in 1952. During this period he also served as head Track Coach, his first love, his teams winning 14 Southern Conference titles as well as national recognition in track and field. He once observed that, "any school can have a good football or basketball program, but it takes a real school to have a great track program." He was devoted to the philosophy of sports for all and was instrumental in developing one of the finest athletic plants and programs in the United States. A staunch supporter of physical education in its broadest sense, he brought Dr. Oliver Cornwell to the University in 1935 as Director of Physical Education: the ultimate result being one of the outstanding physical education-athletic programs in the Nation.

Following his retirement as Athletic Director Coach Bob served as Executive Secretary of the Morehead Foundation until his retirement from that position in 1958, after which he served as Resident Secretary of this Foundation until his death in 1968.

Coach Bob belonged to our Organization (1924) because he believed in what we were doing. Never one to seek publicity, he quietly went about the task of developing a program of athletics for all at the University of North Carolina. He was also a member of the American Football Coaches Association, the Track Coaches Association, and the N.C.A.A. A member of Kappa Sigma Fraternity, he always maintained a close relationship with the students on the campus. All who knew him, particularly those privileged to work for him and with him, would readily agree that there could be only one Coach Bob – a man of character, integrity and vision. His retirement was the end of an era; his death, the loss of a friend to the field of physical education and athletics.

LAURENCE A. MULLINS (1908-1968)

Laurence A. "Moon" Mullins, president of the Athletic Institute died August 10, 1968 in Chicago, Illinois following a lengthy illness.

Born in South Pasadena, California, June 13, 1908, he graduated from South Pasadena High School in 1926, and obtained a B.A. degree from Notre Dame in 1931. He became a member of the NCPEAM in 1966.

Mullins had been a member of the Athletic Institute staff since 1962, serving initially as a field representative. He was named vice-president in 1965, and president the following year.

Before joining the Institute, a national non-profit organization which devotes its efforts to the advancement of athletics, physical education and recreation, Mullins had an increasingly successful career in related activities which spanned four decades.

A track star and an All-California high school football player in 1926, he was the starting fullback of the last three teams coached by Knute Rockne at Notre Dame. The 1929 and 1930 teams were national champions. His prowess in track and field events went virtually unnoticed because of the attention given Rockne and his legendary teams.

The following 30 years saw Mullins as a coach or athletic director at such outstanding universities as Kansas, Kansas State, Florida, Loyola of the South, St. Benedict, St. Ambrose and Marquette. His final collegiate post was at Marquette where he was athletic director for five years before joining the Athletic Institute staff.

Mullins had served as a member of the National Football Rules Committee and, at the time of his death, was a member of the University of Illinois College of Physical Education Advisory Committee.

Surviving are the widow, Mary A. Mullins, of Chicago, and six children.

CLARENCE OSELL (1908-1968)

Clarence Osell, a member of the University of Minnesota faculty for 38 years, died at his home, 913 19th Avenue S.E., Minneapolis, on November 2, 1968. He was 60 years old.

Mr. Osell received a B.S. degree in physical education in 1930 from the University of Minnesota, joining the faculty the same year. He received the M.A. degree in 1938, and he was advanced to assistant professor in 1942 and associate professor in 1949.

During his years on the faculty, Mr. Osell assumed the responsibility for developing the adapted physical education program for the Department. He also contributed notably to planning and teaching in the areas of recreation, outdoor education, and health education. During World War II he carried extra duties as varsity wrestling coach. Under his leadership, Sigma chapter of Phi Epsilon Kappa, the national honorary fraternity for physical education, was established.

He was active in many professional associations, holding leadership position in several. He was president of the Minnesota Camping Association and Chairman of several committees coordinating camping with school programs. He was a fellow in the American College of Sports Medicine, a member of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and

Recreation as well as the Minnesota affiliate. In 1947 he joined the National Collegiate Physical Education Association for Men. Among his community interests was his work with the Boy Scouts of America.

Mr. Osell was a compassionate man who had a deep feeling for the less fortunate. Physically handicapped students found in his adapted physical education classes a place where concern was expressed and individual attention was given to each person.

Mr. Osell is survived by his widow, Marian, and a married daughter, Mrs. Lee Rentz.

GEORGE THOMAS STAFFORD (1894-1968)

George Thomas Stafford served the University of Illinois as a leader in physical education, health education, safety education and adapted and corrective physical education from 1923 until his retirement in 1962. His death came suddenly July 3, 1968.

George T. Stafford was born in New Haven, Connecticut on March 3, 1894. After graduating from Springfield College in 1917, where he received honors in three sports, he became Director of Physical Education at Brookline High School. In World War I he served with Base Hospital 44 in France. Upon returning to the United States he gave full attention to the field of therapeutic exercises, a field in which he became nationally known.

He was called to the University of Illinois in 1923 where he started the first program of adapted physical education. He secured his Master's degree in Education at the University of Illinois in 1928 and his doctorate at New York University in 1937.

His first book ***Preventive and Corrective Physical Education*** is one of the pioneer works in the field. His book ***Sports for the Handicapped*** has done much to influence public opinion as to the many possibilities for handicapped individuals to participate in sports. He was the author and co-author of several other books and of numerous articles on health, physical education, therapeutic exercises and safety. Dr. Stafford's interest in the field of physical education has always been very broad in scope. For a good many years he was supervisor of the required physical education program for men and also initiated the faculty sports and recreation programs at the University of Illinois. His recognition of health needs of students led to his organizing the first courses in health education.

He designed the first course in safety education in 1939, which included not only driver education but accident prevention in sports and physical education, in the home and on the farm. While recognized as a national leader in the field of therapeutic exercises and adapted sports, he was also well known for his contributions in the field of health and safety education. In the early years of his career he served as an exercise consultant to Bob Zuppke and other coaches specifically in recuperative exercises after injuries and operations.

During World War II, Dr. Stafford was consultant to the U.S. Air Force, Army and Navy department of physical rehabilitation. He organized and conducted the Army Reconditioning Schools for enlisted men at Camp Grant and Fort Lewis and the combined Navy School for enlisted men and officers at Sampson, New York. While at Sampson he served as Dean of the Navy School and after its conclusion he served in Washington on the staff of Admiral Ross MacIntyre as civilian consultant for the Navy hospital rehabilitation programs.

After World War II he continued to serve as a special consultant to the Veteran's Administration Hospital Rehabilitation programs. This endeavor laid the ground work for the present programs of physical therapy and its acceptance as important facets of the physical medicine and rehabilitation programs in the Veterans Administration Institutions.

George Stafford was one of the early scholars in his profession. His imagination, creativity and foresight led to many early successes in his field. He was a dedicated teacher and a much sought after lecturer and speaker. He had little patience for those students who didn't give a maximum effort. Although considered a hard task master, he was inwardly a warm individual, very observing and helpful with his students and colleagues. He had natural ability for administration and was always well organized and thorough in everything he undertook, particularly with his writings.

He was most dedicated to the University of Illinois, but he also spent many summers teaching at various colleges and universities throughout the country. He was also a pioneer in teaching extension courses throughout the state of Illinois.

He was an ardent sports enthusiast with an active interest in golf, squash and badminton. His other hobbies were traveling and good literature.

Besides being a member of many professional associations, Dr. Stafford was a Fellow in the American Academy of Physical Education, the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation and the American Public Health Association. He was also an honorary member of the National College Physical Education Association for Men (1965).

His retirement years were spent enjoying his new home overlooking the Urbana Country Club golf course and assisting his wife, Helen, in conducting her real estate business. Although not as active physically as he once was, his writings were still productive. His death came in the midst of revising, with his co-author, the third edition of the widely used textbook, *Safety Education*. Death came as he would have wished: no long suffering, no lingering for someone to take care of him, but a sudden relaxation of a long and fruitful dynamic career. He will not be forgotten as the work he initiated is carried on by his former students and colleagues. Those of us who were fortunate to know him have been enriched through his teachings and his presence among us.

LESLIE E. SWAIN (1886-1968)

Leslie E. Swain, a member of the Brown University faculty from 1920 until his retirement in 1954, died on January 23, 1968 in St. Petersburg, Florida. He was born on January 5, 1886 in Providence, Rhode Island and in 1904 graduated from Classical High School in that city. Brown University awarded him the B.A. degree in 1908 and the M.A. degree in 1909. From 1909 until 1920 he taught mathematics and coached football at Classical Technical and Hope High Schools in Providence and in 1920 was appointed instructor at Brown University. Mr. Swain provided the leadership in organizing the physical education and intramural departments at Brown. He held offices in the National Intramural Association and the Rhode Island Physical Education Association. He became a member of the NCPEAM in 1927 and in 1944, while serving as secretary for this association, was made an Honorary Life member.

An excerpt from the Brown University Alumni monthly magazine exemplifies this man's qualities. "His death released him from a long period of affliction in which his Christian fortitude, his patient spirit, and his winning smile were an inspiration to all who knew him. The touch of his life upon the many young men whom he taught during his long tenure on the Faculty of Brown University made them better men. His keen and questing intellect led them to new fields of understanding. His devout Christian spirit made of his faith, not a spoken creed, but a triumphant way of life. His gentleness, unswerving fairness, and the depth of his consideration and understanding endeared him to all who were close to him."

At the time of his death he was retired and is survived by his wife, Anna C. Swain.

OPERATING CODES COMMITTEE

Business of the Operating Codes Committee was conducted according to the codes outlined on pages 37-38, *NCPEAM Operating Manual*, dated January, 1964.

In a memorandum dated September 27, 1968, all officers, section chairmen, and members of the Operating Codes Committee were polled for suggestions in changing the *NCPEAM Operating Manual*. Enclosed with each memorandum was the Report of the Operating Codes Committee, 1967, which recommended "that the Secretary-Treasurer have the Operating Manual updated and to have incorporated such revisions and additions as have been approved since the 1964 printing." Both the memorandum and the 1967 Report of the Operating Codes Committee were sent to the Secretary-Treasurer.

As a result of this poll, Dr. Chalmer Hixson, of The Ohio State University, serving as Acting Chairman of the Legislative Committee, submitted a document containing "Proposed Changes to Operating Code of the Legislative Committee As Recommended by the Legislative Committee, April, 1968" to the chairman of the Operating Codes Committee for approval. This document was forwarded to the members of the Operating Codes Committee for study and approval. The proposed changes recommended by the Legislative Committee were approved by the Operating Codes Committee. It is therefore recommended that the Executive Council direct the Secretary-Treasurer to incorporate into the *NCPEAM Operating Manual* the proposed changes to the operating codes of the Legislative Committee. The document in its approved form is attached to this report.

The Secretary-Treasurer has acknowledged the recommendation to update the *NCPEAM Operating Manual*.

Respectfully submitted,
John E. Reno
Chairman

Proposed Changes to the Operating Code of the Legislative Committee

1) Change item III A to read:

   "The Committee shall be organized as a standing committee of the Association with one member selected from each state in the United States."

2) Change item III B to read:

   "A steering committee shall be appointed by this President consisting of six members of the Committee, one from each of the representative areas of the United States with one of the six, if possible, being a member of the AAHPER Legislative Committee."

3) Change item III C to read:

   "The appointments to the Steering Committee shall be made by the President of NCPEAM so as to have 2/3's of the members retain their positions and 1/3 be appointed annually to assure experienced membership on the Steering Committee. The other 44 members shall be continuing appointments at the discretion of the President of NCPEAM."

4) Change item IV A by the addition of the following statement:

"Each member upon accepting his appointment shall send five (5) self-addressed air mail stamped envelopes to the Chairman to facilitate communication and to disperse the costs of postage."

5) Add a new item IV C:

Procedure to develop support or opposition on legislation.

1. Chairman contacts the President of NCPEAM to secure Executive Council approval for action by the Committee, and/or membership.
2. Chairman then contacts the 50 committee members and/or total NCPEAM membership.
3. Each Committee member then contacts other members and friends of NCPEAM in his state, asking them to contact their Congressman concerning the legislation in question. NOTE: Committee members, as well as the other members of NCPEAM, are free to abide by their own decisions; no one is expected to provide support or opposition to legislation which his own conscience does not dictate.

6) Each reference in the operating code to the "Executive Committee" of NCPEAM should be changed to "Executive Council."

POLICIES COMMITTEE

The members of the committee were written March 11th, 1968 indicating the procedure to be followed to arrive at policy consideration.

The President was asked to include a request for policy ideas in a "biennial poll" to serve as a basis for committee considerations.

President Charles Kovacic asked for policy changes or suggestions in his last NEWSLETTER.

No letters with suggestions were received from the membership or the committee members.

However, during the summer, the Executive Council was confronted with the question of reprinting articles from the PROCEEDINGS, and after taking interim action, the Council referred the matter to the Policies Committee. The Committee recommends the following policy:

4f. Display the following statement on the inside back cover of the PROCEEDINGS:

Non-profit organizations may secure reprints of PROCEEDINGS articles by paying cost-plus handling charges. Additionally, said organizations must secure the author's permission and then may request the privilege of reprinting and/or translating articles, giving appropriate credit to the author and the PROCEEDINGS.

However, profit agencies must pay the "going rate" for these privileges after receiving appropriate permission, with the revenue accruing to the National College Physical Education Association for Men. Profit making agencies shall be interpreted to include an author who receives royalties from a publication.

Respectfully submitted,
E. George Van Bibber
Chairman

PUBLIC RELATIONS COMMITTEE

1) Each member of the committee was sent a copy of the operating code.
2) Each member was asked to send his suggestions or ideas on two (2) items:
   (1) Projects or work which the committee should engage in.
   (2) Evaluate the operating code and send reactions to it.
3) The committee did not have any suggestions for immediate or long range projects.
4) The committee was concerned with the unrealistic task of carrying out the duties *3g* in the operating code which reads:

   "Prepare feature articles, news releases and spot announcements for the press, radio and television pertaining to the election of officers, committee activities; association projects and significant work of individual members."

   The obvious questions would be:

   (1) How would a committee prepare news releases since the operation of a committee is too time consuming to make it worthwhile as a news article?
   (2) Can we as a committee properly represent the association in this type of public relations?
   (3) What funds are available to the committee for carrying out these duties?
5) The possibilities for accomplishments by this committee are intriguing. It is our hope that we can realize some of these opportunities in 1969.

Respectfully submitted,
Kenneth R. Church
Chairman

RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

The Resolutions Committee recommends the following resolutions:

ONE

Whereas the members of the National College Physical Education Association for Men are members of higher education, and

Whereas we hold that academic freedom and tenure of our members is appropriate and necessary, and

Whereas the 1940 Statement of Principles of the American Association of University Professors, presently endorsed by 65 learned societies, is worthy of support by our organization, therefore

Be it resolved that the National College Physical Education Association for Men endorse the 1940 Statement of Principles of the American Association of University Professors, and

Be it further resolved that the secretary of the National College Physical Education Association for Men send a copy of this resolution to the Deputy Director of the American Association of University Professors, with a request that the National College Physical Education Association for Men be included among endorsers of the 1940 Statement of Principles.

TWO

Whereas President-Elect David Matthews, the section officers, John Friedrich and his staff have made excellent preparations for the convention, and

Whereas participants from colleges have made excellent contributions to the program, and

Whereas the arrangements and accommodations have been so efficiently planned, therefore

Be it resolved that the NCPEAM extends its sincerest appreciation to all for the part in which they played in making the 72nd Annual Meeting a tremendous success.

Respectfully submitted,
Carl E. Erickson
Chairman

PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEES

TIME AND SITE COMMITTEE

A review of the rotation plan for the time and site of the national conference for NCPEAM specifies that the 74th conference be scheduled for the Northwest. This rotation plan also reveals that the 71st and 72nd annual conferences had been scheduled in January. It has been generally inferred that the December and January date would be rotated. The 73rd annual conference is scheduled for Chicago in December, and maintaining logical equalization of the December and January date, the 74th convention could also be scheduled in December. However, in investigating the availability of hotels and various convention facilities, as is indicated in this report, both December and January dates have been investigated.

Early last year, there were some proposals to the Executive Council that the Association consider holding this conference in Hawaii. The Council responded negatively to this proposal and, as a result, there remain only two major cities which meet the necessary criteria and appropriately fit the Northwest geographical description – namely, Seattle, Washington and Portland, Oregon.

Both of these cities are equally qualified from the standpoint of transportation connections in terms of rail, highway, and air transportation. Three major railroads serve each city, excellent freeways provide ready access to and through the metropolitan areas, and each city has at least six major airlines serving these centers.

Due to the fact that the period between Christmas and New Year's Day is generally a very quiet business period for hotels, the individual room rates, as indicated in the prospectus from each hotel, are much more favorable during the December period. On this basis, it is quite apparent that the December 27-28-29 or December 28-29-30, 1970 dates are most desirable dates for the convention. With one exception, the same hotels could be available January 14-15-16, 1971 but due to the pressure of use, the hotels will not make the same rate concession during this period.

In comparison of the desirability of selecting Portland or Seattle, the following summary statements may be made. Both cities provide a wide variety of metropolitan interests. During the projected scheduled period for the conference, both have a wide variety of professional sporting activities, in terms of ice hockey and basketball. Skiing areas are readily available at either community. Both cities have available in close proximity to the hotels, excellent shopping centers and department stores.

Careful analysis of the prospectuses of the various hotels being considered indicates that the expenses incurred by individual delegates, and for the conference as a whole, would be considerably less if the conference were held in Portland.

This is the first time in the history of the Association that it has scheduled a meeting in the Northwest, and the professional personnel in this district welcome enthusiastically the opportunity to conduct the conference and accrue the values to the local institutions inherent in such a conference.

On the basis of analysis of the available information, it is the recommendation that the conference be held December 27-28-29, 1970, in Portland, Oregon. The basis for this recommendation is primarily the advantageous hotel rates and collateral athletic events of interest to the delegates.

Respectfully submitted
Vernon S. Sprague
Chairman

COMMITTEE ON UTILIZATION OF TELEVISION IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

As requested by President Kovacic this reporter has again represented the NCPEAM on the Committee on the Utilization of Television in Physical Education of the AAHPER. By this means our Association has been able to participate in this area of concern without the duplication of the former Presidents' Committees on Television in Physical Education.

The Committee is housed in the Physical Education Division of AAHPER as one of several committees whose chairmen make up the Commission on the Improvement of Instruction in Physical Education. As your reporter is the present Chairman our Association has been represented on the Commission as well.

Since the last report the Committee has:

1) Organized and sponsored four days of telecasting during the 1968 convention of AAHPER. Selected lessons of televised courses and other video-recorded materials in health and physical education at various grade levels were presented through the generous cooperation of KETC-TV, Channel 9 in St. Louis.
2) Sponsored and conducted a program at the St. Louis Convention describing the development to that time of a televised series of Elementary School Physical Education courses being produced by the National Center for School and College Television.
3) Held its annual business meeting during the St. Louis Convention.
4) Participated in a meeting of the Commission on the Improvement of Instruction in Physical Education.
5) Arranged for the dubbing of lessons on Movement Education in Elementary School Physical Education from master tapes recorded or quadraplex recorders to tapes compatible with helical scan video recorders.
6) Conducted negotiations with television stations in Boston, Massachusetts area to organize and sponsor the televising of recorded materials in health and physical education during this annual convention of 1969.
7) Begun the development of a position statement on legal and ethical implications, "Professional Rights and Responsibilities of Television Teachers in Physical Education."

8) Purchased twenty-four half-hour video tapes compatible with Sony CV 2000 and General Electric video recorders. Negotiations for the recording of Elementary School Physical Education lessons as taught by Muska Mosston have been initiated. These tapes will be available to colleges and schools when completed.

9) Continued to gather and disseminate information on the use of television in physical education: Bibliography, Report of National Conference, a list of ongoing studies, teachers manuals and course outlines for televised physical education, two hours of excerpts of televised lessons in health and physical education recorded on video tape compatible with the Ampex 660B recorder. All materials are available on request to the Chairman.

In 1969-70 the committee hopes to complete unfinished projects, continue its ongoing activities and to cooperate with the Commission on Improvement of Instruction in the development of a series of video tapes on "Organizational Patterns and the Improvement of Instruction in Physical Education."

This active and productive committee needs the support and cooperation of NCPEAM. All members are urged to encourage and participate in research and development in this utilization of television in physical education, to contribute appropriate materials (reports, articles, references, teacher guides, course outlines, kinescope films, video tapes, etc.) to the depository and to disseminate through the committee information on innovations of the use of television in physical education.

At this time NCPEAM is represented on the committee it is recommended, therefore, that NCPEAM through informal arrangements with the Vice-President and Chairman of the Physical Education Division of AAHPER continue its present policy.

Respectfully submitted,
Chalmer G. Hixson
Chairman

SUPERVISORS AND TEACHERS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PHYSICAL EDUCATION CONFERENCE REPORT

As representative of the NCPEAM to the Conference of Teachers and Supervisors of Elementary School Physical Education, October 2-5, 1968, Washington, D.C., it is my pleasure to report briefly on some of the materials appearing to be most significant or of greatest interest to our membership. Names and addresses of persons presenting individual papers are given so that more detailed information may be obtained.

The Battle Creek, Michigan Public Schools Physical Education Curriculum Project, Paul Vogel, Director. This is a four year study funded through the ESEA Title III. Its major objectives include the development of :

1) *A Curriculum Model* – composed of philosophy, general objectives, and specific behavioral objectives K-12.

2) *An Informational Retrieval System* – A fast, precise and unique computerized method of retrieving pertinent research materials that relate to man and activity.

3) *A Resource Library* – Including all retrieval system abstracts, pertinent books, pamphlets, curriculum guides, periodicals, records, tapes, reprints, and information from other projects.

4) *A Major University and a Public School System Link* – This approach combines the vast resources found in a major university with the testing ground of a public school system. This project is in its third year; and Michigan State University personnel are members of the curriculum team.

A Pre-School Research Project, Helen Hartwig, Project Director, McKnight School, 8346 Delcrest Drive, University City, Missouri. Children in four pre-kindergarten and six kindergarten classes participated in the project, which is a three year research study to determine the long-range effects of personalized programming based on individual assessment. The program began in University City, Missouri in 1966. It was the idea to construct a school environment such that children who come from widely differing backgrounds, showing every conceivable assortment of strengths and weaknesses, ability and disability, could operate, each one at his optimal rate of intellectual development, propelled by his own curiosity and desire to explore and discover, to learn and to understand. All children entering the program were tested in the areas of coordination, reception, expression and cognition.

ESEA, Title III Program of Movement Education For Plattsburgh Elementary Schools, Plattsburgh, New York 12901, Dr. Joan Tilloston, Project Director. This is an action-oriented, child-centered Physical Education Program. Movement analysis emphasizes understanding that each action performed demands the use of three elements: (1) *space* – direct straight line action and indirect biplane action; (2) *time* – fast or slow speed; and (3) *force* – strong or light effort. Emphasis is also on smooth controlled performance regardless of the movement pattern.

Placing the emphasis on movement education through exploration and problem solving first and applying movement problems, patterns and tasks to game situations is the basic theory of a movement-oriented physical education program.

Experiences in movement education through exploration demand concentration on individuality. Thus, all things being equal, each individual child solves a given task within his own capabilities, under the alert guidance of the teacher. He progresses at his own rate of speed through unique motivational devices designed by the teacher with the help of the students.

Teacher materials include a broad outline showing the teaching process in movement education and a chart indicating the major concepts and activities to be developed.

NCTEPS Demonstration Center. A pilot program of movement education was initiated in the Littlejohn School, DeKalb Community Unit School District 428, DeKalb, Illinois with grade K to 6 children as a cooperative project of the DeKalb Schools and the Department of Physical Education for Women, Northern Illinois University, Dr. Lorena Porter, Director. In December, 1967, the program was selected by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards to be a Demonstration Center for the Year of the Non-Conference. Instructional aides such as films and blueprints of various pieces of equipment were developed.

A New Dimension In Working With Children With Perceptual-Motor Problems, Dr. Edith De Bonis, Department of Physical Education, Southern Connecticut State College, New Haven, Connecticut, was responsible for the aquatic activities for 70 children and 45 graduate students who participated in a six-weeks practicum for children with learning disabilities.

The water or pool activities, geared to help children more efficiently, rather than to teach them to swim, was proven most exciting and promising as a new dimension in working with children with perceptual problems.

All of the pool activity was pointed in one direction – an attempt to help the children discover for themselves their movement potential in the water. As a result it is hoped that each child will develop for himself the personal cognitive security needed to feel free and confident – not in the water – but of *their movements* in the water and therefore capable of moving more efficiently. If there is transfer to their movements out of the water, where the added problem of fighting gravity is always present, this is yet to be proven, but the prognosis leans toward the positive side.

The Dayton Program For Developing Sensory and Motor Skills in Three and Four Year Old Children. William Braley, Sensorimotor Specialist, Early Childhood Education, 1302 Cory Drive, Dayton, Ohio. As a part of the Early Childhood Project of the Dayton Public Schools a *preventative* type program in the sensory and motor areas has been developed.

It is known that the development of these experiences have been denied many children because of one or more of the following reasons:

1) Some type of cerebral dysfunction
2) A lack of natural childhood experience due to cultural disadvantage
3) Emotional upset
4) Overprotective parents who stifle the child's natural instinct toward pursuing his own developmental processes.

The mechanics of the program is simple. In order that all of the 1300 children enrolled in the program receive the same type of instruction, a manual was developed for each project classroom teacher to follow. This manual contains daily lesson plans that provide classroom activities aimed at developing sensory acuity and motor skills.

ESEA – Title III Project Broadfront, Ellensburg Public Schools, Washington. Lloyd Rowley, Director. The federal grant for Ellensburg's Broadfront project is considered to be the largest and most comprehensive in the field of health, physical education and recreation. The title "Broadfront" was picked by the local school district to identify its program since the project involves a broad and comprehensive approach to the education of all students from grades K to 12. It is divided into five major areas: (1) Physical Education; (2) School Health Program; (3) Community School Program; (4) Outdoor Education and School Camping; and (5) Special Education Health and Physical Education. A close working relationship with Central Washington State College is planned throughout the project.

Papers presented on movement education and teacher preparation.

1) "Creative Play Spaces for Children" by Carolyn J. Rasmus, HPER Department, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa.
2) "Creative Movement With Bicycle Tires" by Richard J. Bergner, Physical Education Instructor, Greendale Public Schools, Greedale, Wisconsin.
3) "Movement Education – An Interpretation" Naomi Allenbaugh, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
4) "Movement Education" by Kate R. Barrett, Campus School – The University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
5) "Some Thoughts on Movement Education" by Hayes Kruger, Louise Duffy School, West Hartford, Conn.
6) "Philosophy Pertaining to Movement Education" by Lois Pye, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon.

Small Group Conferences. Feedback reports from small group discussions were presented to the total conferees concerned with the topics of staffing, scheduling, facilities-equipment, co-curriculum, school-community programs, grouping, evaluation, teaching techniques, children we work with, competition, and professional preparation. Staffing, facilities and professional preparation appeared to be of greatest concern to the audience. It is apparent from this session that persons responsible for elementary school physical education would like to see a closer professional relationship with the teacher preparation institutions.

Position Paper On Elementary School Physical Education. Preliminary statements of a position paper from the Elementary School Physical Education Commission of the AAHPER was distributed to all conferees for reaction. In essence, this document will, upon completion, represent a pulling together of a number of beliefs and/or positions that the AAHPER has taken over the years with some modifications (where necessary) to reflect what may be considered the contemporary thinking about physical education in the elementary school today. (Completion of project will be announced by AAHPER.)

Respectfully submitted
Robert J. Antonacci
NCPEAM Representative

JOINT COMMITTEE

JOINT COMMITTEE ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ATHLETICS – NCPEAM, NCAA, AAHPER

The Joint Committee composed the following statement on organizational structure for administering physical education and intercollegiate athletic programs. It has been endorsed by the NCAA and is submitted to the membership of NCPEAM for their reaction.

Statement on Administrative Organization of Physical Education and Intercollegiate Athletic Programs

For the majority of universities and colleges in the United States, it is highly recommended that intercollegiate athletics, physical education, intramural athletic activities and recreational programs be coordinated through a single administrative unit. The combined administrative structure provides for optimal utilization of athletic facilities and the most efficient faculty and staff utilization. Coordinated relationships in the use and administration of all facilities employed in these programs is an absolute necessity. Curtailing the intramural program for lack of facilities at times when physical education class activity areas or varsity practice areas are standing idle is not in the best interest of the students. To deny a swimming class the use of a varsity pool, or to deny the freshman intercollegiate athletic team the use of a physical education field does not appear to be judicious use of the educational dollar. Efficient utilization of the faculty and staff serving the various areas of athletics, physical education and recreation is of equally great importance.

In most colleges and universities, coaches teaching in the physical education programs can make a real contribution to academic programs. Similarly, teachers of physical education may make outstanding contributions in the various coaching areas. Under a single administrative unit, the coaching and teaching duties may be properly emphasized. Under dual administration units, either the coaching duties or the academic programs may grow completely out of balance to the neglect of the others.

For the most efficient operation of any type of intercollegiate athletic and physical education administrative structure, highly qualified leadership is an absolute essential. For maximum results under the single administrative unit, the chief administrator must possess an enlightened philosophy which encompasses the goals of both athletics and physical education; thorough preparation and experience in both areas, along with related administrative skills; and a deep appreciation of the contributions made by these areas in meeting the objectives of higher education.

For the relatively few universities with highly self-supporting intercollegiate athletic programs, it may be desirable to administer the athletic and physical education programs with autonomous departments but with highly coordinated relationships.

Respectfully submitted,
Keith Bowen
NCPEAM Representative

CONSTITUTION
NATIONAL COLLEGE PHYSICAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION FOR MEN

ARTICLE I - NAME

Section 1 – The organization shall be known as the NATIONAL COLLEGE PHYSICAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION FOR MEN.

ARTICLE II - OBJECTIVES

Section 1 – Objectives of the ASSOCIATION relate to the advancement of physical education in institutions of higher learning, including: the basic instructional program; intercollegiate athletics; intramural athletics; research; teacher education; and such other activities as may be assigned to a given college department. More specifically, the objectives are:

a. To improve the contributions of physical education, and where appropriate, the related fields of health education and recreation, to higher education.

b. To identify and define major issues and problems confronting the profession, particularly those of higher education, and resolve them to the best possible ends.

c. To gather, analyze, interpret, and organize the research needed to resolve the major issues and problems facing the profession of physical education, especially those which are concerned with higher education.

d. To develop interdisciplinary relationships with kindred fields of knowledge for the light they may shed on the nature and values of physical education (e.g., anthropology, psychology, sociology, sports medicine, etc.).

e. To improve public relations through increasing public understanding of the nature and purposes of physical education in American and world life.

ARTICLE III - MEMBERSHIP

Section 1 – The ASSOCIATION shall consist of members as hereinafter provided.

ARTICLE IV - GOVERNMENT

Section 1 – The government of the ASSOCIATION shall be vested in an Executive Council, officers, committees, and members as hereinafter provided.

ARTICLE V - WESTERN DIVISION

Section 1 – The Western College Men's Physical Education Society, consisting of college physical educators in the thirteen western states, shall be known as the Western Division of the National College Physical Education Association for Men (Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming).

ARTICLE VI - SECTIONS

Section 1 – The ASSOCIATION may establish sections within its organizational structure as hereinafter provided.

ARTICLE VII - MEETINGS

Section 1 – The ASSOCIATION shall conduct annual and special meetings as hereinafter provided.

ARTICLE VIII - AMENDMENTS

Section 1 – This Constitution may be amended at any regular or special meeting of the

ASSOCIATION, or by mail vote. A favorable vote of three-fourths (3/4) of the members present at a regular or special business meeting, or a majority of the current membership by mail vote, shall be required for amendment; no mail vote shall be valid beyond thirty (30) days after official notification. In either case (regular or special meeting) a quorum must take action as hereinafter provided.

BY-LAWS

ARTICLE I - MEMBERSHIP AND DUES

Section 1 – There shall be two (2) types of membership: active members and honorary life members: All members shall have equal voting privileges. Active members, only, shall pay dues – as provided in Sections 2, 3, and 4 below.

Section 2 – Active members are men actively engaged in teaching or administering one or more components of college physical education, men with teaching experience pursuing graduate study, or men engaged or interested in allied fields.

Section 3 – Active membership dues shall be ten dollars ($10.00) per fiscal year – as provided in Article XI, Section 5 – payable to the Secretary-Treasurer upon official notification by him. Members delinquent in their annual dues for a period of one (1) year shall be dropped from the rolls; re-instatement consists of paying the annual current dues.

Section 4 – Honorary Life membership may be conferred upon Active members or former Active members by a two-thirds (2/3) affirmative vote at a regular business meeting. Honorary life members shall enjoy all the rights and privileges of active members except the payment of dues.

ARTICLE II - EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

Section 1 – The Executive Council shall consist of the President, President-Elect, the immediate Past President, the Secretary-Treasurer, one (1) Member-at-Large, and all elected Section Chairmen as provided in Articles III, IV, and VI below. All members of the Executive Council shall have equal voting powers. Any person holding office in the ASSOCIATION must be an active member.

Section 2 – The Executive Council shall manage the general affairs of the ASSOCIATION, except as hereinafter specified. These general affairs shall consist of: (a) fulfilling directives given to it by the membership at the annual business meeting, or by mail vote; (b) presenting matters of policy to the membership at the annual business meeting, or by mail vote, for adoption or ratification; (c) acting for the ASSOCIATION between annual meetings; (d) maintaining an active professional program through the year; and (e) making appointments to fill vacated offices not otherwise provided for.

ARTICLE III - OFFICERS AND DUTIES

Section 1 – Officers of the ASSOCIATION shall consist of the President, President-Elect, and Secretary-Treasurer. Any person holding office in the ASSOCIATION must be an active member.

Section 2 – The President shall preside at all ASSOCIATION and Executive Council meetings, and appoint all committees as prescribed in Article IX. He shall call and make appropriate arrangements for the place and conduct of all meetings of the ASSOCIATION and Executive Council as provided in Article VII. He shall supervise the program planning for all ASSOCIATION meetings as provided in Section 3 below. He shall provide for an annual audit of the Secretary-Treasurer's accounts as provided in Article IX. He shall be authorized to sign checks in the absence of the Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 3 – The President-Elect shall, during the absence of the President, perform all duties of the President, and, if the office of the President becomes vacant, the President-Elect shall succeed to the presidency for the unexpired term. The President-Elect shall succeed to the presidency at the normal expiration of the President's term of office as provided in Article IV. The President-Elect shall plan the ASSOCIATION program for its regular annual meeting, under the supervision of the President as stipulated in Section 2 above.

Section 4 – The Secretary-Treasurer shall perform all duties usually incumbent upon these offices, edit and cause to be published the Proceedings of the annual meeting and other publications, in accordance with Article X, collect dues, pay ASSOCIATION bills on approval by the President, assume general charge of all monies belonging to the ASSOCIATION, render a financial account to members at the annual business meeting, and conduct mail voting procedures as authorized by the President. The Secretary-Treasurer shall be bonded by the ASSOCIATION to the sum of ten thousand dollars ($10,000) per annum. He shall receive a sum annually for clerical and other services, if funds permit, as determined by the Executive Council.

ARTICLE IV - ELECTION OF OFFICERS AND THE COUNCIL MEMBER-AT-LARGE

Section 1 – A nominating committee consisting of the three immediate past presidents shall be instructed by the President to prepare a slate of at least two names for the office of President-Elect and Council Member-at-Large, the retiring President to serve as Chairman. If the Nominating Committee desires, it may submit only the name of the incumbent Secretary-Treasurer for re-election. Additional nominations may be made from the floor at the annual business meeting. A majority vote, with a quorum present, shall be required for election; if no candidate receives a majority on the first ballot, the two candidates receiving the highest number of votes shall then be voted upon. Elections shall be by secret ballot.

Section 2 – Officers and the Council Members-at-Large shall be elected for one (1) year, extending from the close of the annual meeting at which they are elected to the close of the next annual meeting at which their successors are elected. If, for some unusual reason a quorum be not present at the election of officers – as provided in Article VIII, Section 1 – the incumbent officers and Council Member-at-Large shall remain in their respective positions for the ensuing year.

Section 3 – The President, President-Elect, and Council Member-at-Large shall not immediately succeed themselves in the same office, except as specified in Section 2 above. The Secretary-Treasurer may be re-elected from year to year at the pleasure of the membership.

Section 4 – Vacancies, except as provided in Article III, Section 3, shall be filled by the Executive Council pending the regular election.

ARTICLE V - WESTERN DIVISION

Section 1 – The Western Division will be represented on the Executive Council only as its members might be elected to it (Executive Council) in the regular course of events as National College Physical Education Association members.

Section 2 – The Western Division shall have one session at the National College Physical Education Association meeting whenever it is held in any of the thirteen western states, in place of their regular annual meeting, and the President of the Western Division shall be responsible to the President-Elect of the National College Physical Education Association for this program just as any section chairman is responsible to him for his program.

Section 3 – The purposes of the Western Division shall be consistent with the purposes of the National College Physical Education Association as stipulated in Article II of its constitution.

ARTICLE VI - SECTIONS

Section 1 – The ASSOCIATION may establish sections within its organizational structure to promote the activities of professional interest groups. Examples are: basic instructional programs; intramural athletics; teacher education; intercollegiate athletics, research; history of sport; and others.

Section 2 – The membership may authorize the establishment of any given section at a regular business meeting by a majority vote upon written application by twenty-five (25) current members stating the purpose and function of the proposed section and upon recommendation by the Executive Council – provided a quorum takes action as prescribed in Article VIII.

Section 3 – Each section shall elect its own officers consisting of a Chairman, Chairman-Elect, and Secretary at the annual section meeting. A Nominating Committee consisting of three (3) section members shall be appointed by the Chairman at least three months preceding the annual section meeting at which the section officers will be elected. The Nominating Committee shall prepare a slate of two (2) names for each office. Additional nominations may be made from the floor. A majority vote shall be required for election. If there are more than two (2) candidates and no candidate receives a majority on the first ballot, the two candidates receiving the highest number of votes shall then be voted upon. Elections shall be by secret ballot. Any person holding office in the ASSOCIATION must be an active member.

Section 4 – Section officers shall be elected for one year, extending from the close of the meeting at which they were elected to the close of the next annual meeting at which their successors are elected. Section officers shall not immediately succeed themselves in the same office.

Section 5 – The Chairman shall preside at all section meetings which shall be open to the entire ASSOCIATION membership. He shall supervise the program planning for all section meetings held during the annual meetings of the ASSOCIATION. He shall also be responsible for pursuing professional activities throughout the year which are pertinent to the interests of the section. He shall be responsible for the conduct of section activities in a manner consistent with the intent and stated provision of the ASSOCIATIONS's Constitution and By-Laws. By virtue of his office as Section Chairman, he shall serve as a member of the Executive Council of the ASSOCIATION.

Section 6 – The Chairman–Elect, during the absence of the Chairman, shall perform all the duties of the Chairman, and, if the office of the Chairman becomes vacant, the Chairman-Elect shall succeed to the chairmanship for the unexpired term. The Chairman-Elect shall succeed to the Chairmanship at the normal expiration of the Chairman's term of office. The Chairman-Elect shall plan the section program for its regular annual meetings under the supervision of the Chairman as stipulated in Section 5 above.

Section 7 – The Secretary shall keep minutes of all business transactions at section meetings. These minutes shall be passed along to each succeeding Secretary, in order that the continuity of section activity may be maintained. He shall be responsible for forwarding all papers and reports given at section meetings to the Secretary-Treasurer of the ASSOCIATION for consideration for publication in the PROCEEDINGS.

Section 8 – The ASSOCIATION may abolish a given section at a regular business meeting by a two-thirds (2/3) majority vote provided a quorum takes action as prescribed in Article VIII.

ARTICLE VII - MEETINGS

Section 1 – The ASSOCIATION and its Executive Council shall each hold at least one annual meeting at the time and place designated by the Executive Council.

Section 2 – Special meetings of the ASSOCIATION and/or the Executive Council may be called by the President upon authorization by the Executive Council.

ARTICLE VIII - QUORUM

Section 1 – A quorum to conduct ASSOCIATION business at its regular annual meeting, or by mail vote, shall consist of not less than fifteen percent (15%) of the current membership. No mail vote shall be valid after thirty (30) days from the date upon which the question was mailed by the Secretary-Treasurer to the members for action.

Section 2 – A quorum of the Executive Council shall consist of at least three-fifths (3/5) of the members, including the President, or the President-Elect duly authorized by the President to act for him.

ARTICLE IX - COMMITTEES

Section 1 – Committees shall be designated as President's Committees, Continuing Committees, Standing Committees, and Joint Committees. Any person holding office in the ASSOCIATION must be an active member.

Section 2 – President's Committees shall be appointed by the President and expire with his term of office.

Section 3 – Continuing Committees shall be authorized by the membership at regular business meetings, or by mail vote. Continuing Committee members shall be appointed by the President and approved by the Executive Council. A Continuing Committee is one whose assignment extends beyond the term of office for which the President is elected, but which deals with a specific project or problem of terminal nature. Such committees shall continue until discharged by official action of the membership at a regular business meeting, or by mail vote.

Section 4 – Standing Committees shall be authorized by the membership at a regular business meeting, or by mail vote. Standing Committee members shall be appointed by the President and approved by the Executive Council. A Standing Committee is one assigned a given task which, of necessity, extends indefinitely. Such committees shall follow the policy of rotating membership and number of members as determined by the Executive Council, with no person appointed for a period to exceed three (3) consecutive years. Standing Committees presently authorized by the ASSOCIATION are: Constitution; Finance; Foreign Relations; Historical Records; Membership; Necrology; Resolution; Nominations; Convention Program; Policies; Public Relations; Operating Codes; Research; and Legislative.

Section 5 – Joint Committees shall be authorized by the Executive Council and appointed by the President. A Joint Committee is one that deals with a specific project or problem in cooperative relationships with one or more associations or organizations.

Section 6 – Each Continuing Committee and Standing Committee shall prepare an operating code which is to be approved by the Executive Council.

Section 7 – All committees shall report at each annual meeting as determined by the Executive Council.

ARTICLE X - PUBLICATIONS

Section 1 – The official publication of the ASSOCIATION is the *Proceedings,* which contains a record of activities carried on throughout the year, culminating in the annual meeting.

Section 2 – The Secretary-Treasurer shall be responsible for editing and publishing the *Proceedings* as soon as possible after each annual meeting, and for the distribution of free copies to all members in good standing.

Section 3 – The Secretary-Treasurer shall arrange for the publication and distribution of such other materials as the Executive Council may direct.

ARTICLE XI - FINANCE

Section 1 – Monies obtained by the ASSOCIATION shall be allocated to the: (a) operating budget; or (b) permanent fund.

Section 2 – The operating budget shall contain those funds deemed necessary by the Executive Council to carry on the work of the ASSOCIATION throughout the fiscal year, including the annual meeting.

Section 3 – The permanent fund represents those monies that accumulate from time to time in excess of the operating budget. The Secretary-Treasurer shall invest these sums upon recommendation by the Finance Committee (as defined in the following Section) and as approved by the Executive Council. The Executive Council may authorize the withdrawal of funds from the Reserve Account for use as the Executive Council sees fit.

Section 4 – A Standing Committee, known as the Finance Committee and conducting its affairs under the direction of the Executive Council, shall: (a) prepare annually the operating budget; and (b) make recommendations to the Executive Council on the investment of surplus funds.

Section 5 – The fiscal year shall extend from September 1st through August 31st.

Section 6 – In the event of dissolution of the National College Physical Education Association for Men, all unencumbered funds will be forwarded to the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Washington, D.C.

NCPEAM POLICIES

All current policies formally adopted by the Association to govern its affairs are included in this section. For the purposes of the Association, a policy may be defined as an agreed course of action to be followed in conducting the affairs of the organization.

In many cases, the provisions of the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association are not definitive. These provisions are implemented into action through the medium of policies and procedures. These policies and procedures tend to give continuity and uniformity to Association activities over a considerable period of time, irrespective of the changes that occur continuously among its officers and members. It is also through the medium of policies and procedures that the Association gears itself to the fluctuations of the times.

ACHIEVING ASSOCIATION PURPOSES

1. Association Objectives

The Association shall:

a. Use every medium of influence to improve present programs of physical education in the schools at all levels to the end that the boys and girls and all citizens of the nation have adequate opportunity to develop desirable attitudes, knowledge, and skills in physical education.

b. Support all efforts aimed at establishing desirable athletic practices at each educational level to the end that physical education can make its maximum contribution to the welfare of the participant.

c. Engage in activities looking toward the promotion of research designed to improve the quality and scope of programs of health education, physical education, and recreation through (a) research activities of the Association committees; (b) Association endorsed studies by selected graduate students in colleges and universities; (c) collaboration with other organizations conducting meetings and in the publications of the Association; and (d) serving as a clearing house for research in college health education, physical education, and recreation.

d. Commit itself and its membership to a policy of aggressively seeking to recruit into physical education an increasing number of qualified young people who are interested in the behavioral sciences, in the humanities, and in communication skills. Further that such young people should be permitted modification of their undergraduate curricula and be guided into graduate programs adapted to developing their special skills in the interests of research, philosophy, and interpretation related to physical education. The National College Physical Education Association for Men shall assign to a standing committee or to a special committee the task of conducting a year-round program designed to implement this resolution and to discover and report specific instances in which progress had been made with respect to its execution.

e. Conduct a biennial poll of all active members to obtain ideas for new policies or revisions.

2. Coordinating with Other Agencies

The Association shall:

a. Cooperate with other education agencies to improve professional preparation programs in health, physical education, and recreation.

b. Cooperate with other educational agencies in promoting the objectives of health education, physical education, and recreation.

c. Call upon all school and college administrations to secure properly qualified professional personnel to teach, coach, and administer physical education and athletic programs.

d. Cooperate with other educational organizations in sponsoring and/or having official representation at conferences in the fields of health education, physical education, and recreation.

e. Coordinate whenever possible the work of committees and projects with similar committees from other professional organizations.

f. Cooperate with other professional societies in the formulation of education standards and in recommending them to colleges and universities for the development and control of programs of health education, physical education, and recreation.

3. Basic Instruction Program

The Association shall:

a. Support the position that the practice of substituting band or ROTC for the physical education program must be vigorously opposed.

b. Encourage colleges and universities throughout the country to abolish the practice of granting physical education credit for military service.

c. Encourage colleges and universities to include in the basic instruction program a depth of emphasis on the body of scientific knowledge, on the relationship of exercise to the biological development of the human organism, and on movement as a medium in the educational process for total development of the individual.

ADMINISTERING ASSOCIATION AFFAIRS

1. Membership

The Association shall:

a. Seek to retain new members to better acquainting them with the traditions and purposes of the organization, and seek ways for them to participate actively in the affairs of the Association.

b. Endeavor to maintain liason with Emeritus members by utilizing their experience and zeal through participating in assignments to Association affairs and programs.

c. The membership not previously paid will be billed for dues, one month after the Annual Meeting has concluded.

2. Annual Meeting

The Association shall:

a. Have as the primary purpose of the regular meetings of the Association to provide the largest number of members with opportunities to discuss the major areas of the college program of health education, physical education, and recreation. These meetings shall be planned so as to include wide participation among members.

b. Select the dates and location of the annual meeting so as to encourage maximal attendance by the members of the Association. To equalize, over a period of years, the distance traveled to meetings of the Association residing in the various sections of the country, the principle of periodic rotation among cities shall be given consideration in the selection of the site for the annual convention.

c. Consider site locations for the annual convention that place no restriction on Association members with reference to housing, attendance at meetings, or other factors tending to divide the membership.

d. Limit the length of the official convention to three days. This does not prevent any group from meeting before the convention, but group meetings shall not be included in the official program, nor shall any papers or summaries of pre-convention meetings be a part of the *Proceedings*.

e. Require papers submitted for presentation to be limited to the basic essentials of the topic. In no case shall papers exceed 2000 words, including committee reports. The editor shall have authority to make deletions or changes necessary to conform to his policy.

f. Require that only abstracts of prepared papers be presented at annual meetings, thus allowing more time for discussion.

g. Take no official action to assist special interest groups in scheduling informal meetings.

3. Committees

The Association shall:

a. Require each committee to submit its operating code to the Operating Code Committee, who will in turn request that the Constitution Committee check each code to see that it is in keeping with the constitution.

b. Rotate committee membership in order to involve as many members as possible.

c. Strive to seek committee representatives from institutions in all areas of the nation.

d. Provide a fund for use by the President in executing his duties. Normally all of his expenses shall be borne by his institution, therefore, this fund is to serve only as an emergency fund.

4. Publications

The Association shall:

a. Disseminate deliberations of the official meetings through the published *Proceedings* and through reports covering such special projects as may be authorized by the Association.

b. Cooperate with the AAHPER for publication of the annual *Proceedings.*

c. Carefully edit all publications of the Association to make certain that they represent a high quality of scholarship and follow approved methods of conducting and reporting educational research.

d. Not accept advertising or other extraneous material for publication in the literature of the Association.

e. Collaborate with the National Association for Physical Education of College Women in the publication of *Quest.*

f. Display the following statement on the inside back cover of the *PROCEEDINGS:*

Non-profit organizations may secure reprints of *PROCEEDINGS* articles by paying cost-plus handling charges. Additionally, said organizations must secure the author's permission and then may request the privilege of reprinting and/or translating articles, giving appropriate credit to the author and the *PROCEEDINGS.*

However, profit agencies must pay the "going rate" for these privileges after receiving appropriate permission, with the revenue accruing to the National College Physical Education Association for Men. Profit making agencies shall be interpreted to include an author who receives royalties from a publication.

5. Projects

The Association shall:

a. Endorse only those studies which benefit the profession and the Association.

b. Place in the hands of ten appropriate committee requests by students seeking endorsement of the Association for doctoral studies. Procedures to implement this policy will be included in the operating code of the committee.

c. Sponsor and conduct projects as approved by the Association. Such projects should involve little or no expense. They must be of a nature that their business can be readily transacted by mail, and they should have some beginning and ending.

6. Historical Records

The Association shall:

a. House National College Physical Education Association for Men historical documents in a designated college library.

b. Annually give two copies of the *Proceedings* to the library designated by the Association to house its historical materials.

c. Preserve its historical records by duplicating the original copies. Duplicate copies can then be distributed upon request from the library designated by the Association to house its documents.

7. Delimitation of Function

The Association shall:

a. Not serve as an accrediting agency to evaluate specific programs of health education, physical education, or recreation in individual institutions of higher education.

b. Not participate in activities concerning the relationship of a particular college to its employees in such matters as employment, promotion, tenure, dismissal, or academic freedom.

8. Maintenance of the Policy Statements

The Association shall:

a. Assign the Secretary-Treasurer to be responsible for maintenance of the policy book. He shall make its contents, or parts thereof, available to officers and members whenever the need arises.

b. Direct the Secretary-Treasurer to include new policies in the policy book or to revise or delete those previously established as approved at a regularly scheduled business meeting at the annual convention. Action on policies may be taken at any regular business meeting of the Association without the necessity of prior notice.

c. The Association's policies shall be printed in the *Proceedings* annually.

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(2) Past Secretary-Treasurer

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